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# The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1912.

## The Week

At Des Moines Mr. Roosevelt again elaborated his tariff views. "We stand," he said, "against the doctrine, the Republican party's tariff doctrine, that is a tariff for privilege. We stand against the Democratic doctrine which is a tariff for destruction, and we believe in a tariff for labor, a tariff to help our wage-workers, and the justification for which is to be found in the actual way in which it does help the wage-earner." Now, in the first place, it is to be observed that Mr. Roosevelt ran for Vice-President and President upon platforms which embodied the good old Republican protective tariff doctrine as being the sole hope of American labor, and that during the seven years he was President he never made a single protest against that tariff or sought in any way to alter it. More than that, he never spoke about it during his incumbency as President. But waiving that, and assuming for the moment that the Democratic doctrine does spell destruction to labor, just what kind of a tariff, one may ask, will be found in an "actual way to help the wage-earners"? Of course, Mr. Roosevelt has not the faintest idea. If the Republican high tariff spells privilege and the proposed Democratic low tariff spells destruction to labor, what is the magic tariff like on which labor thrives? Mr. Roosevelt could not answer; but this claptrap illustrates anew the complete confusion of his mind on tariff questions, on which he has never had any real conviction since he was a member of the Free Trade Club.

From this truly Rooseveltian vagueness it is satisfactory to turn to Gov. Wilson's speeches of Monday. The Lawrence strike illustration of the benefits of the protective tariff he used most effectively. Here are poor people receiving \$8 a week in one of the most highly protected industries in America, an industry which has gone to Congress after Congress and begged for high protection, chiefly on the ground that the American workingman is benefited by the tariff. No one has seen of late more clearly than Gov. Wilson how the coun-

try suffers from its swaddling clothes; and how industry has fettered both itself and its labor by its tariff. As a result, the men in the unprotected industries are at this moment, as the Governor stated, getting better wages than most of those who labor for the protective tariff barons. His amazement that the country has so long been fooled by this tariff swindle, thousands of emancipated Americans will now share.

The result of the Maine election is, from the national point of view, quite as encouraging as there was any good reason to expect. The tidal-wave victory of the Democrats in the September election of the off-year 1910, it would have been a most extraordinary performance for them to repeat in this Presidential year. The proper comparison is with Presidential years, and the Democrats have improved on their record of 1908; the Republicans, who elected their candidate for Governor by a plurality of 7,600 in 1908, won this year by a plurality of only 3,000—the net Democratic gain being thus 4,600. And this in spite of the fact that the 1908 election was abnormally favorable to the Democrats. The Maine September plurality in Presidential years, from 1896 to 1904 inclusive, ranged from 26,800 to 48,400; and even in 1892, the year of the tremendous Cleveland victory, the Republican plurality was 12,500. The Maine September election is entitled to no very great weight as a pointer for the nation's verdict in November; but in so far as it shows anything, it is a highly favorable indication for Wilson.

The display of political justice made by the Kansas Progressives in holding on to the Republican electoral ticket in the very act of trying to defeat the Republican nominee for President, is having its fit reward. It is turning Taft Republicans in Kansas to Wilson. Yet the Kansas Rooseveltians did no more than Flinn has so far been doing in allowing Roosevelt electors to remain on the Republican ticket in Pennsylvania. The Republican party, it is said, is so hopelessly corrupt that no decent man can have anything to do with it except in States in which its banner can be captured and carried to victory over the

forces which would naturally follow it. This comports rather oddly with the loudly proclaimed come-outer policy of the leader of the armies of the Lord, but if nothing less than the flying of the black flag and the consequent misleading of part of the enemy's hosts will win at Armageddon, who can object to such a ruse? It is no new thing for the devil to appear as an angel of light in order to deceive the elect, but when before were the elect so cunning as to reverse the process?

Public opinion will hold Gov. Glasscock to his promise that the murderers of Walter Johnson, who was put to death by a mob for a crime of which he was plainly innocent, shall not be allowed to go scot free. Gov. Glasscock has been prominently before the public as a pioneer in the new movement which proclaims as its object the vindication of human rights as above property rights. It now behooves him to see to it that in his own State the most elementary of all human rights, the right to life, is not restricted to white men. The West Virginia Governor promises that the guilty men shall be brought promptly to trial. Unfortunately, even this does not make it certain that justice will be done. The story of Coatesville has shown what a perverted public conscience can do when the factor of race hatred comes into play.

The "system" within the Police Department of New York city may be the most important single factor in the highly complicated situation arising out of the murder of Herman Rosenthal. But the courts, too, enter into the problem. Here, as in so many other important public questions, the direct way out and the common-sense way out is blocked by a riotous jungle-growth of legal technicality. We are not referring to the rich opportunity for evading the ends of justice offered by the peculiar legal standing of the men indicted for the murder. When a dozen lawyers defending half-a-dozen prisoners begin pleading immunity and State's evidence, and what not, and the rain of legal writs, habeas corpus, certiorari, and what not sets in, there will be a merry time, indeed. But even to that we are

accustomed. The public has learned to accept it as a natural thing that the lawyers of a man on trial for life or liberty shall twist and double and block and delay and resort to every other trick in the amply-furnished bag of the modern criminal lawyer. The public is even grown used to see the judges lending themselves, weakly or complacently, to this disgusting game of subterfuge and chicanery. That is an old story. But what shall be said of the same game when it is not a question of a man being tried for life, but simply being subjected to departmental discipline, as in the case of Inspector Hayes?

The following headlines are taken from one of the leading New York papers:

Morse at Work in His Old Office.  
Back in the Street to Stay, but Won't Say  
What He Intends to Do.  
Looks in Best of Health.

The Morse referred to in these headlines is none other than the Charles W. Morse whose sentence of fifteen years' imprisonment in the Federal Prison at Atlanta was commuted by the President on January 18, 1912, "to expire at once," when barely more than two years of it had been served, on the sole and express ground that the President had been assured, on high Government medical authority, that Morse was afflicted with a fatal disease, so that his "duration of life will be, in all probability, less than one month if kept in confinement, and in the event of his release under commutation of sentence it is not probable that he will live as long as six months." It is lamentable that, in one of the few conspicuous cases in which a criminal having wealthy and powerful connections has been sentenced to heavy punishment, a way should have been found virtually to set aside the deliberate sentence of the court, to circumvent the vigilance of the President and bring to naught his honest determination that justice should have its course.

The attention of the managers of the Carnegie Hero Fund should be called to a certain Chicago instructor in music. There was brought to him a girl who had been found by the music teachers of her home town to be a musical genius, lacking only a little expert training. The Chicago professor, instead of accepting this verdict and proceeding to

turn the pupil into a Jenny Lind, suspended judgment until he should have examined her proficiency. Then came his heroic act. He made his examination—and advised the girl's mother to take her daughter home and make a good cook and housewife of her. The "insult" was promptly resented, and although the money paid the instructor in advance was returned, he was threatened with legal proceedings for his unprecedented course. That he was a hero of a new type and should be recognized as such is evident.

The tragically sudden death of Lieut.-Gen. Arthur MacArthur at the dinner of the survivors of his Civil War regiment removes another important figure of the war with Spain and in the Philippines. As a mere boy he was adjutant of one of the best Wisconsin regiments of the Civil War, and came back as its colonel at twenty-one, wearing a medal of honor for carrying its flag over the breastworks of the enemy when but eighteen years old. As a general in the Philippines, he showed great strategical ability. His plan of campaign in 1900 and 1901 was well thought out and as well carried out. Moreover, he was a humane and tactful officer, and there are many who think that if he had had supreme command at the beginning of the Philippine trouble the record would have been quite different and not as disgraceful to the American nation. At any rate, Gen. MacArthur was an unusually able and broadminded officer, of culture and charm, whose staff was sought both by our officers and by foreign attachés for its high tone and quiet efficiency. More than that, Gen. MacArthur was singularly modest, never parading in public and never dabbling in politics. Altogether, he deserves to be remembered as a very high type of the American soldier, and there is something quite fitting in his demise in the midst of the men he brought back to Milwaukee from the battlefields of the South, just forty-seven years ago.

The difficulty of whistling down the Philippine aspirations for independence is materially increased by the establishment at Washington of a monthly journal, called the *Filipino People*, by the Philippine Commissioner, Manuel L. Quezón. The avowed purpose of the publication is the promotion of "the

great cause of Filipino independence," the clearing away of misconceptions regarding the character of the Filipino people and their capacity for self-government, and the demonstration of the practicability as well as the desirability of setting up an independent republic in the archipelago. A significant statement in the announcement is that Mr. Quezón has obtained such assurances of support for this policy from the Democratic leaders in Congress that he expects the Jones bill for qualified independence to pass the House next winter. The Senate is less favorably disposed, but the campaign in behalf of partial and then complete independence is promised to continue until it is successful.

People will continue to sneer at golf as an old man's game, because that is one of the untruths that sound so well. But the defeat of Harold Hilton by a boy just out of college, coupled with the fact that the British amateur championship was recently won by a boy of nineteen, shows plainly that success at this game is not dependent on the sedentary virtues of old age. The match in which Hilton was put out by young Waldo is described as nerve-racking from beginning to end. The veteran British player left the field badly worn out, and his conqueror appears to have been more than once on the verge of collapse. People will still disparage the character of golf for strenuousness, but in their hearts good Americans will conceive a greater measure of respect for a game that carries with it the possibility of nervous prostration.

Syndicalism seems to have had its run in England for the time being. Reports of the proceedings at the congress of British trade unions agree with what observers on the spot have said concerning the state of exhaustion to which the labor unions in that country have been reduced by the series of bitter strikes, of which the dock strike was the last episode. In that series of general strikes, the champions of syndicalism, or "one big union," professed to see the beginning of the end of the present industrial régime. Labor had at last awakened to the consciousness of its powers when exerted in mass. Henceforth no mere petty local trade strikes. One general strike after another was to

bring the economic life of the nation to a standstill and the capitalist class to its knees. But events have shown what events on the Continent had shown before, and what the astute Social-Democratic leaders in Germany have recognized: that the general strike means playing with fire. Unless those who initiate a general strike are prepared to go to the point of actual revolution, it can only spell failure.

In Russia, in the autumn of 1905, a general strike forced the Czar to grant a Constitution; but it was a strike in which the entire nation, irrespective of class, participated. The nation could not repeat the effort; when the revolutionists proclaimed a second general strike in November of the same year, the attempt not only proved a failure, but brought about the loss of much that had been gained in the first assault. It is the theory of the syndicalist leaders that the general strike educates the working class for revolution, and that by dint of repeated attempts they will some day bring off a strike that will turn into a revolution. The contrary is true: every unsuccessful general strike leaves behind it a discouraged and disorganized mass.

The latest census returns from Ireland indicate a continuance of the improvement in regard to decline of population. The emigrants for the year are estimated to have numbered 30,000, which is 4,000 below the average for the last decade. The decline in population during that decade was only 1.2 per cent. It was 5.2 per cent. for the ten years preceding. Equally encouraging are the prison statistics, which show a reduction in the total number of prisoners received during the year. Stress is laid upon the difficulty of teaching the prisoners trades, since agriculture is the chief industry of the country and few of the prisons have land. The picture is by no means that of a sinking ship which is often imagined.

It is not Germany that we have to fear, after all, but our hereditary foe, England. Why? Because in her possession of Bermuda she holds the key to the Panama Canal. This is the reason that she was so willing to agree to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, and it is also the reason why we are lost unless we

maintain a fleet of overpowering strength on the Atlantic. As a keen-eyed journalist notes, "England has strengthened and strengthens to-day her West Indian squadron in proportion to the growth of the United States navy, but always with the advantage that Bermuda is so much nearer the Panama Canal than the base for our Atlantic fleet." It follows, as the night the day, that Bermuda, under her present ownership, constitutes a constant menace to the Monroe Doctrine. The wily British, in order to cover their own movement in this regard, have not hesitated to launch reports of attempts by other nations to interfere with our control of the canal, even casting suspicion upon their ally, Japan. Worst of all, as we are reminded, Bermuda "was taken from us by a reprehensible trick, as any student of American history can verify." Our duty, then, is clear. Where is the man who will take Bermuda for us and enable us to sleep in security?

There is one community of Englishmen in which the outcome of the Olympic games was not received with bitterness, and that is the British settlement at Shanghai. The *Celestial Empire* begins its comment on the result with "Hip! Hip! Hurrah!" for the Swedes, and goes on to note that the Americans were beaten for first place only because they did not take part in the yacht races. Yet the population of Sweden, this journal reminds its readers, is less than that of London. To be sure, the Swedes were competing at home, and therefore in considerable numbers, but this fact does not detract from their victory in the eyes of this distant English newspaper. Nor does it look for the explanation of their triumph to their American trainer, and proceed to denounce such careful preparation as unsportsmanlike, if not ungentlemanly. On the contrary, it remembers that Sweden is essentially agricultural. "There," it finds, "is the substratum of success—open-air life, good lungs, hardy frames, strong muscles." In addition to these, it points to the Swedish method of physical development.

Our American school teachers frequently have a habit of thinking themselves much abused and underpaid. But to teachers abroad the position of our men often seems ideal. Just now the

facts about the great suffering among teachers in Austria have again come to light in an effort to ameliorate their condition. One of them who writes to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* says that in most teachers' families the wolf never leaves the door. There is not only genuine suffering, but often destitution, for in many families the income does not amount to ten cents per head a day. As a result, the teachers are driven to every sort of expedient, out of hours and in vacations, in order to keep body and soul together, even taking up the most humiliating pursuits. To be able also to carry on a trade is considered great good fortune. This correspondent states that he knows a teacher who regularly picks up the remnants of the children's luncheons at the close of the lunch hour, in order to take them home to his starving children.

Dr. Morrison's recent letter in the London *Times*, dealing with present conditions in China, has served to quiet in part the stories of violent dissension between President Yuan Shi-Kai and the Radical party headed by Dr. Sun Yat-Sen. Of course, differences do exist between the Moderates of the North, as represented by the President of the Republic, and the Radicals of the South, by whom the late revolution was initiated. But owing to the peculiar political structure of China, the danger of these differences to the young republic is minimized. The loose, sprawling aggregation of provinces that make up the Chinese state is a perpetual guarantee against sudden change. A rebellion might be smouldering away for years in one section of the country without greatly affecting matters at Peking. It was this condition of affairs which made a successful rising against the Manchu dynasty so difficult. But once the revolution has succeeded and the republic is installed at Peking, the same forces work in its favor. It is just the opposite situation to that which prevailed in France after 1789. In that highly centralized state, no great event could occur in one section of the country without producing a repercussion in every other section. A revolutionary triumph in Paris meant revolutionary ascendancy pretty nearly everywhere else. Reaction at Paris meant reaction in the provinces. Things are much less coherent in China.



## NICARAGUA AND MEXICO.

In official circles at Washington it is held that the revolution in Nicaragua is over. "No serious disturbances are looked for." But there is one serious disturbance that has already occurred, and worked damage it will take years to remedy. This is the damage wrought to the nation's reputation for fair dealing with weaker neighbors. Suspicion of our motives, always rife in Latin America, has been strengthened into active fear. Some two thousand American marines are now running the Nicaraguan national railways. This is a spectacle which renders null and void all the efforts of our diplomacy at conciliation with Spanish America. The festal journeys of our Secretaries of State become mere ludicrous episodes. But it is not for the Latin republics only that our adventure in Nicaragua has a sinister meaning. For ourselves it has set up a dangerous precedent which will not fail to be used by the professional trouble-brokers as an excuse for similar adventures on a larger scale.

As we reread the story of the five weeks' revolution in Nicaragua, we can see what substantial foundations there are for the charge that this Government went into Nicaragua or was fooled into going to Nicaragua, in behalf of self-seeking American interests. The right of the American Government to intervene for the protection of its subjects, whenever a foreign Government is unable or unwilling to extent such protection, is unquestioned. But what were the facts in Nicaragua? The revolution began on July 29 when President Diaz dismissed Gen. Mena from the post of Minister of War. The earliest fighting occurred on July 31. Three days later American marines were landed at Corinto. Did a perilous situation really develop with such startling rapidity, or have we here a touch of that forehandedness which made the Panama revolution of 1903 one of the most telepathic revolutions in history? Dire news of imminent need of the kind that has been flowing in so steadily from Mexico for more than a year began to issue from Nicaragua. American lives were in danger. American women were compelled to take refuge on board of our men-of-war. Yet, as always, the only American lives that seem to have been endangered were those of the professional American sol-

diers of fortune, whose love of excitement and loot evokes such frequent demands on the American Government to protect its citizens abroad.

Highly significant, too, is the record of military operations during this latest revolution. As one goes through the newspaper accounts day after day, the story is one of an uninterrupted series of victories for the Nicaraguan Government's forces. The first attack by the revolutionists ended in their defeat, and from that moment their fortunes steadily declined. Here was no evidence that the Nicaraguan Government had broken down. There was no long deadlock as in Mexico. The threatened condition of anarchy seems to have remained a threat. Our representatives in Nicaragua began to call for protection from the drop of the hat. But as late as August 30, the British Consul at Matagalpa, where dire events had been predicted for weeks—for American newspaper consumption—writes to his Government in the following dispassionate terms:

The present local authorities are doing all in their power to guarantee life and property, but the circumstances are very difficult. Certain elements, who are well known for their rancor, hostility, and idiosyncrasy, have frequently expressed evil intentions against foreigners. Should this element gain control of the revolution in the neighborhood of Matagalpa, I believe the lives and property of his British Majesty's subjects would be in danger.

On August 30, then, the possibilities were that, if a certain thing happened, there *might* be danger, at Matagalpa. But to our own State Department anarchy had been loose at Matagalpa for weeks. It must have read with relief Admiral Southerland's recent report that conditions at that place are "exaggerated."

The pity and shame of it all is that in Nicaragua, in the short space of a month, we should have gone so far to undo the valiant campaign in behalf of national honor and international justice and peace that has centred about Mexico. For nearly two years now the best conscience of the country has successfully backed up Mr. Taft in his resistance to the tremendous pressure that has been exerted in order to force intervention in Mexico.

But now, after holding fast so long to the counsels of national honor, Mr. Taft seems to be wavering in regard to Mexico. Within the past few days there has been a sudden and violent outburst

of intervention talk. Language of portentous gravity is employed in Washington dispatches about the state of mind now obtaining in official circles. The reasons for this change, or alleged change, are, however, either not assigned at all or indicated with extreme vagueness. The only thing that seems to appear with any clearness is that President Taft and those near to him are entertaining the idea of intervention in a far greater degree than was the case a short time ago. If this be true, the time has come for impressing upon the President in the most solemn possible way the tremendous character of the responsibility which he will assume if he should venture upon such a step, or if, by calling Congress together in special session, he should take action pointing towards such a step. Before taking upon his conscience the burden of an act fraught with consequences of incalculable gravity and duration, he must ask himself whether there has been established, beyond the peradventure of a doubt, the imperative necessity to do so. Unless this question can be answered unmistakably in the affirmative, his duty to his country, to Mexico, and to humanity commands that he shall firmly abstain from it, no matter how plausible the reasons in its favor which may be urged by those in his immediate environment, by interested parties here or in Mexico, or by the voices which represent a shallow and thoughtless patriotism.

## THE SYRACUSE GATHERING.

The Progressive gathering at Syracuse—plainly more of an assemblage than a convention—displayed much of that same fervor, earnestness, and belief in its regenerative power which was so noticeable at the Chicago Roosevelt Convention. The spectacle was for the newspaper correspondents again a most unusual one, for it was more nearly a gathering of sociologists and social workers than of politicians, or of political workers, or the usual delegates. There appeared also to be more manifest than at Chicago the feeling that this is a wonderful new social movement, aside from Roosevelt's personality, and one that is bound to endure. If not an uprising of the people, it is one, some members feel, of those who work for the people. In the eyes of the settlement workers, it is humanity throwing

off its chains. They who work for others have had years of labor to establish themselves and their profession; why is it not right, they ask, that they, the keenest of social observers and students, should now come into their own?

Well, it suggests nothing so much as the enthusiasm of that first revolutionary assembly in Paris in June, 1790, into which they carried a man a hundred and twenty years old, the "Eldest of the World" Carlyle dubs him, that his fading eyes might yet dwell upon the convention which was to regenerate this terrestrial sphere. Not that we would sneer or gibe at either. The spirit of unselfish reform which actuated many of the men and women at Syracuse is to be welcomed in public life; its absence has been but too sharply felt. Where, for instance, were our social workers in 1898, when some rebels in the Citizens Union offered to Colonel Theodore Roosevelt the nomination of Governor? Their social consciousness was not then so keenly awake as now. When the valiant colonel, fresh from Kettle Hill, threw over the independent nomination at Senator Platt's request and declared those men to be falsifiers who thought they had his word to stay on the "goo-goo" ticket, the independent movement went by default. The social workers of that day voted for Boss Platt's ticket with all the "yellow dogs" carried into office by Col. Roosevelt, and were quite content that their hero should take his weekly breakfast with Boss Platt to counsel and plot for the week ahead.

But passing over ancient history, we confess that, with all our respect for the sociologists and workers who dominated the 1,500 delegates at Syracuse, the gathering was topheavy. Take the list of the platform-makers; is there not a trifle too much sociology; does it not smack too much of the East Side or West Side settlements? Is this assembly really the cross-section of the population the ideal democratic body should be? Those were amusing stories of the labor man who wanted more "labor bunkum" in the platform; and of the farmer delegates who reminded the men from the slums that some of the people of New York State live elsewhere besides in the tenements. Is it really wise and democratic to let any group, whether of laboring-men, or philanthropists, or farmers, dominate? Is it not a truism—particularly so of

the social workers—that those who are closest to these heart-stirring social problems are often the least able to view the problem as a whole, to hold the proper perspective? Are there not often among them those who in their spiritual pain are too impatient, cast loose from all their bearings, and welcome every suggested reform, the wilder and more radical the better?

As to the moral obscuration of those of this group who would directly tie up good causes to a man of Mr. Roosevelt's unstable character, overweening personal ambitions, blind egotism, and proven treachery, we have in the past expressed ourselves vigorously enough. That these newer "ministers of social justice" should deliberately espouse the doctrine of seeking to do good without regard to the means employed, seems to us one of the most discouraging signs of the times. There are even professional teachers of ethics among them! But waiving this, we would not deny that their platform, and the character of the gathering, will make a powerful appeal to the electorate which no one can overlook, least of all the professional politicians. This will be heralded as an unbossed Convention, and the seething discontent in the State, to which we have so often called attention, will be mightily attracted by it.

And this feeling will be strengthened by that flash of unforeseen enthusiasm which led the Convention, after long wrangling over two candidates for the nomination for Governor, suddenly to choose instead a third man, fully as worthy of the office as either, and probably stronger as a candidate than either. Oscar S. Straus has behind him an honorable record of public service as well as an unblemished character. With him for the head of the ticket, and with the remainder of it of good quality, the Progressive party enters upon its campaign in New York State in a position of undeniable strength. The campaign for Mr. Straus is one which will have to be seriously reckoned with, and which both of the old parties will be put to their trumps to meet.

#### WORK AND PLAY IN EDUCATION.

Teachers in Cook County, Illinois, took violent exception the other day to the remark of Superintendent Maxwell of this State, that concentration as a study should receive greater attention

than vocational training. "The basic work of the school," declared the Cook County Superintendent, roundly, "is to put the pupils on a self-supporting plane, and vocational training is the most logical avenue to the ultimate achievement of that purpose." Not many days later, Superintendent J. M. Greenwood of Kansas City gave an address to his teachers, in which he, too, dealt with the topic of vocational training. After repeating what he had said upon it eighteen months before, that unless this innovation is intelligently directed, it will infuse what is sound in our schools without benefiting any considerable number of persons, he expressed his agreement with the conclusions of Edwin C. Cooley, former Superintendent of Chicago schools, who returned some months ago from a study of the vocational schools of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. Dr. Cooley holds that the period of childhood, by which he means the years from six to sixteen, should be preserved for general "cultural" education, with adequate attention to the training of eye and hand, and that even in strictly vocational training, the aims of culture should not be abandoned.

How thoroughly "reactionary"—that blessed word—are Superintendent Greenwood and those who think with him! He has even dared to assert that the amusement theory of education has been carried to a ridiculous extent. The early studies—reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and United States history—are, he feels, the right studies for boys and girls, and "form an infinitely better background for the child's future progress than any amount of half-learned miscellaneous stuff picked up at random from the various departments of science, art, civics, agriculture, history, or literature." This is downright educational heresy, and both he and Superintendent Maxwell ought to be excommunicated for harboring, and especially for publishing, such views. If an eight-year-old boy or girl prefers the saw or the needle to the books that his elders have prescribed, who are these superintendents that they should say the child nay? It is an open secret that we have failed in our endeavors to compel our children to learn; if we are not to be allowed to cajole them, their outlook for an education is hopeless. Let them play in the kindergarten, and make their own se-



lection of studies as soon as they evince a desire to choose; so they shall be willing to remain in school and shall come out in the end scholars to be proud of.

This pleasing hope is a little shaken, to be sure, by considerations put forward in an article in the *Educational Review* entitled "Oxford—a Contrast," the contrast being between English and American university men in their attainments and their ability to master intellectual tasks. The unfavorable reports made to the officers of the Rhodes Trust by Oxford tutors concerning the scholastic ability of our Rhodes scholars, printed in the fifth annual report of the Carnegie Foundation, may be summarized in the testimony of one of them: "As a general rule, they know nothing well, but something about a great many things—the kind of knowledge you might get from attending public lectures." That last phrase ought to be engraved over the door of a thousand university lecture rooms, as a warning to lecturer as well as auditor. We have been in the habit of looking upon Germany as the exponent of thoroughness, but our undergraduates may congratulate themselves when they approach the standards in this respect of outworn England.

Princeton's adoption of the preceptorial system was a signal recognition on the part of one of our great universities of this want of thoroughness, but the real sign of that lack has been in existence much longer. It is the endless multiplicity of "courses," the infinite subdivision of the field of knowledge and investigation. Instead of a subject, our students study a segment. At bottom, it is a question of ideals. We pride ourselves on our breadth; we admire the versatile man. The master of one thing we may have to employ now and then, but he is not the man who evokes our enthusiasm. In a pioneering stage, this attitude is natural enough, if not inevitable. But we have played the coward too long behind that great bulwark "pioneering." If vocational training should help to open our eyes to the fact that education is as serious as that most serious of all matters with us, business, this gain may go far to offset the loss suffered in other directions.

#### DISAPPOINTING VACATIONS.

The tide of those returning from vacation comes streaming into the cities from all sides, thronging docks and railway terminals, trying the backs and souls of baggagemen, and making them a shade more vicious in their professional conduct than usual. This host divides into two parts. On one side is the group of those who have found complete satisfaction in their outing. They come wrapped in garments of content and tan. Mingled with them, however, is that unfortunate second group of the disappointed. They have failed to get either the profit or the joy they looked for. Accordingly, they either enlarge upon their disappointment or steal away to sulk in their tents. So large is this second group that it is worth while to investigate the causes for its being.

By their choice of a vacation spot too many people nowadays are keyed up to the highest pitch of expectancy. Their perusal of guide-books and transportation-company "literature" has made them see in vision nothing short of paradise. As this is not to be found anywhere in life, obviously they are bound to meet with disillusion and regrets. Their roseate dreams once shattered, they are completely benumbed at being stranded in an "unpleasant" place. They look upon the dark side of their surroundings. They persist in this, taking a sort of mournful pride in the lack of conspicuously attractive points. They see the place, not for what it is, but for how much it falls short of what they expected. As a natural result, they settle into a mood of apathy. But the true and philosophic way to make the most of what is thought a bad bargain has been set forth by Stevenson in one of his essays, "On the Enjoyment of Unpleasant Places":

It is a difficult matter to make the most of any given place, and we have much in our own power. Things looked at patiently from one side after another generally end by showing a side that is beautiful. . . . I have often been tempted to put forth the paradox that any place is good enough to live a life in, while it is only in a few, and those highly favored, that we can pass a few hours agreeably. For if we only stay long enough we become at home in the neighborhood. Reminiscences spring up, like flowers, about uninteresting corners. We forget to some degree the superior loveliness of other places, and fall into a tolerant and sympathetic spirit which is its own reward and justification. Looking back the other day on some recollections of my own, I was astonished to find

how much I owed to such a residence; six weeks in one unpleasant country-side had done more, it seemed, to quicken and educate my sensibilities than many years in places that jumped more nearly with my inclination. . . . So, wherever a man is, he will find something to please and pacify him; in the town he will meet pleasant faces of men and women, and see beautiful flowers at a window, or hear a cage-bird singing at the corner of the gloomiest street; and for the country, there is no country without some amenity—let him only look for it in the right spirit, and he will surely find.

Another sort of person unhappy in holiday-time is the man who likes a place well enough as a place, but is discontented on account of its familiarity. Because he has seen it all time after time, he is envious of the thousands who every summer roam the world in search of novel and wonderful sights. Yet those who go abroad every summer little dream that near their own familiar homes is to be found perhaps equal beauty. Meanwhile, those near home bewail the fact that they cannot travel. Their eyes are closed to the vision at hand. Lowell tells a pointed anecdote:

I was walking through the Franconia Notch, and stopped to talk with a hermit who fed with gradual logs the unwearied teeth of a saw mill. . . . At length I asked him the best point of view for the Old Man of the Mountain.

"Dunno—never see it."

Too young and too happy either to feel or affect the juvenilian indifference, I was sincerely astonished, and I expressed it.

The log-compelling man attempted no justification, but after a little asked, "Come from Bawsn?"

"Yes" (with pensinular pride).

"Goodie to see in the vicinity o' Bawsn."

"O, yes!" I said, and I thought—See Boston and die! . . .

"I should like, 'awl, I should like to stand on Bunker Hill. You've ben theer often, likely?"

"N—o—o," unwillingly, seeing the little end of the horn in clear vision at the terminus of this Socratic perspective.

"'Awl, my young frien', you've larned neww that wut a man kin see any day for nawthin', children half price, he never does see. Nawthin' pay, nawthin' vally."

So the world goes, one man taking time and money to get within view of what the other man never thought of raising his head to see. The persons who must stay in a familiar spot would be spared much discontent could they but realize what vistas lie all about them. Perhaps "Nawthin' pay, nawthin' vally" must ever remain a law of human nature. But, as the philosophic critic concludes, "there is one exception, wise hermit—it is just these *gratis* pictures which the poet puts in



his show-box, and which we all gladly pay Wordsworth and the rest for a peep at. The divine faculty is to see what everybody can look at."

#### LEARNING ENGLISH THROUGH THE CLASSICS.

Why is it that so few persons can write good English? I do not mean English distinguished in style, but just good English, that says what it means clearly and says nothing else. This complaint is made by those who have to teach college freshmen; and the fault does not end with freshmen. A circular of the English Board of Education says: "The weight given in entrance examinations to Scripture knowledge often approaches vanishing point." It means: "Scripture knowledge often gets few marks or none," and the mixed metaphor only obscures. *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes*—who will look after the literary police?

Now perhaps the most effective way to make our thoughts clear is to express them in a foreign language: and this is true above all of Greek. The faults of modern English, as generally written—dead metaphors, abstractions, periphrases—are found equally in French and worse still in German: but not in classical Greek. English may be clear: Greek must be clear, or it is not Greek. If, therefore, the pupil is trained to express his thoughts in Greek, he is necessarily trained to express his thoughts clearly.

For this sort of training the Greek language has merits that no other language has, at least in the same degree. I place first, as most important, the merit of truth; I mean, that the words correspond to the sense more exactly than in any other language. This is most important, because no one can learn Greek at all without learning this, and thus it affects not only the scholar but the boy of moderate powers. Let me take a few instances:

The observant reader, who has marked our young lieutenant's previous behavior, and has preserved our report of the brief conversation which he has just had with Captain Dobbin, has possibly come to certain conclusions regarding the character of Lieutenant Osborne. ("Vanity Fair.")

This would be in Greek:

Εἰ ἐνόησας ὅτι μὲν πρὶν ἐνοήσας ὁ Γεωργίου, ὅτι δ' εἶπεν οὐ πάλιν ὅτι τῷ Γουλιέλμῳ, ὡς καὶ ἔγωγε λέγομαι, ἴσως ἦν καὶ περὶ αὐτοῦ καταγεγραμμένος πως οὗτος ὅστις.

You see that the English does not make it clear that our young lieutenant is Lieutenant Osborne; says the same thing twice when the observant reader marks; does not make clear how the report is preserved; and uses five abstractions which call up no image whatever, "behavior," "report," "conversation," "conclusions," "character." Four of these

five abstractions are acts, and are properly expressed by verbs; one is a dead metaphor, which does not express the thought better, or indeed as well, as an adjective. It is true that this can be simply expressed in English: "If you have noticed what Osborne did, and if you remember what he said, as I told it, you will know something of what kind of a man he is." It can be so put, but the point is, that it is not so put; the roundabout way is the usual way in English, whereas the straight way is not only the usual way in Greek, but it is the only right way. I take a few more instances from a novel I happen to be reading:

I had hoped to cheer him with the story of a visit I had by chance paid that afternoon to the Asolando tea room.

Ἐδείκνυσα περὶ μεσημβρίας ἐν θαυμασίῳ τινὶ καφενεῳ· καὶ ταῦτ' εἶχον ἐν τῷ διηγησέσθαι ὡστ' εὐφραίνετο αὐτόν.

Notice the string of prepositional phrases, and again abstract nouns to express acts: the form also of the sentence is such, that it might end at "visit," "paid," "afternoon," or "tea-room"; whereas the Greek has three distinct parts, each complete in itself, and no part of each is such that it can be dropped:

He could never overcome a tendency to sea-sickness.

Ἀεὶ ἐναυσία, οὐδ' ἦν ἄρισ οὐδὲν.

Again an abstraction without a picture, and a meaningless metaphor.

It was over a cup of tea in the Asolando that Bennet made the first notes for his revolutionary essay on the Sapphic fragments in a dog-eared text still treasured among the Room's memorabilia.

Ἐσταυρά θη πρῶτον αὐτοσχεδιάζει ὁ Βενέτις ἅμα πίνων τὸ περὶ τῶν Σαπφείων, ὅπερ καὶ ἡμελλε πάντα τοσαύτων ἐκπλήττειν. κείται δὲ καὶ νῦν ὡς περ ὁ θησαυρὸς τὸ βιβλίον πάναν κατατετυμμένον, ἐν ᾧ γέγραπται τὰ ὑπομνήματα ἑκείνα.

Six prepositional phrases, only one finite verb; and this to express two main thoughts and two subordinate thoughts. Notice how the epithet "revolutionary" is made to imply what ought to have been clearly said. This is another common English fault, which is greatly favored by politicians: many of their epithets imply the logical fallacy of begging the question which they are expected to prove, but a course of Greek would enable the hearers, if they wished, to detect these fallacies. I have omitted to note other faults, such as using long Latin words when a short English word does better. This is sometimes done on purpose, to throw an air of mystery over a simple thing, for fun, but most of these sentences are not meant to be funny. Another misuse of the epithet, common enough, must be mentioned: when it is used to throw in something by the way that really belongs to another part of the passage, or does not belong to it at all:

The team spoke well for Miss Hollister's stable, and the liveried driver kept them moving steadily.

Why liveried? A liveried driver drives no better than a driver without livery; the word has no meaning there unless there is a logical link. If it was worth while saying that he wore livery, it should have been said earlier.

The passage also contains other faults. What did the team say? That the stable was good? The author means that the horses were good, not that these horses proved that there were other good horses in the stable, or that the stable was good. It is strange that the team should speak at all; that has hardly happened since Balaam's day: but if the team does speak, why should it be nothing more to the point than this: "The good horses proved that her horses were good." In this passage, the author's democratic love of show peeps out: but this type is generally found with the sentimental and picturesque touch. Examples are: "She leaned her small oval head against his broad, hairy breast." "She opened her blue eyes at him." "He followed the black-robed figure." "She tapped her little foot." But in these the color or size or shape has nothing to do with the point. This vice is seen even in good authors; as when Prescott says ("Peru," I, 381) in describing an assault, "they poured into the plaza horse and foot, each in his own dark column." These picturesque expressions are highly offensive in Greek prose; they are not so in English, only because we have allowed ourselves to think loosely. It is greatly to our benefit, then, to study a language where such things are not allowed.

In some degree, Latin is like Greek. Latin is more direct than modern languages, but it falls far behind Greek. This is partly because Latin has no article, partly because the indirect constructions are stiffer, more artificial, and do not always admit of a finite verb. In expressing how thoughts are related, Latin has some advantage, because it is very concise and its rules very strict: but even here, the Greek can do as well if necessary, though it prefers liveliness. In directness, simplicity, truth to life, the Latin falls far short.

I have now shown that the Greek language has merits which most other languages have not, and none in the same degree.

I have of set purpose confined this proof to the elements, to that which every one who learns Greek must learn and must continually practice: it appears to be highly useful that boys should be practiced every day in the art of saying exactly what they mean. But for those who advance further, the language has other shining merits, which I think no one will dispute. No language can express so many fine vari-

ations and shades of thought. Thus the student has to carry further the art of saying what he means. English has often one expression for two distinct thoughts: and when this is so, the two always come to be confused, and the untrained mind thinks that there is only one. For instance: "If I write" has not the same sense in the following:

- A. Why do you write?
- B. If I write, I have my reasons.
- A. Please give my kind regards.
- B. If I write, I will.

This is only one of a thousand examples. The enormous number of particles represent so many shades of feeling, that they can only be rendered by tone, gesture, movement of the face. There are scores of verbal inflections, each with its part to play. The learner is always learning new varieties of expression; few indeed learn all that can be learnt of the Greek language, and what it can do. If I do not dwell on this, it is because no one will deny it. My point is, that the process of making the thoughts clear, which we saw in the elements, is carried on to very high refinement by further study. This kind of training will be of great benefit to the ordinary mind: a great natural genius may do without this or any other training of the sort: but our schools are full of ordinary minds, not great natural geniuses.

But some one may say, these things are not quoted from English classics. One of them is: the rest are quite familiar English style, as all readers will agree. But further to meet the objection, I will take a few sentences from a good translation of a Greek classic, where the Greek has no style—it is merely Greek—and the English is meant to have style. I open the book at random:

Is the King designate to have such a force attached to his person as will enable him to enforce obedience upon unwilling subjects. . . . Even upon the supposition that his authority is wholly constitutional. . . . (Weidon.)

Πότερον ἔχειν δεῖ τὴν μέλλουσα βασιλευσὶν ἰσχύοντινα περὶ αὐτὴν ὅτι ἀναγκαῖον βιάζεσθαι τοὺς μὴ πειθαρχοῦντας πειθαρχεῖν; . . . οἱ γὰρ κατὰ νόμον εἰς κύριος . . . (Aristotle, "Politics," III, 15.)

The Greek has only one abstract noun, "force": the English has five, of which two are foisted in without need ("person," "supposition"), one represents an action ("obedience"), one a descriptive word (κύριος). We re so used to these things, that a simple rendering would sound to most ears bald. My point as before is, not that English cannot be simple, but that it is not, and that Greek study may help to mend this. Things are still worse in metaphysics and other kinds of philosophy; where even in technical subjects Greek words always mean something: the very terms of grammar record to the stu-

dent something of what goes on in the scholar's mind. Cicero, who invented most of the Latin terms of philosophy, cannot always be understood without Greek; but Plato, in his most abstruse parts, uses words which human beings could use in their daily life. It is thus that all arts and sciences seem to live when we read of them in Greek: in English, how dead they are! and how fearful is the jargon of books on plants, animals, the earth, Mendelism, pragmatism, and all the other isms and ologies. I have listened to a skilful coach teaching boys botany for an open scholarship: a large part of his work was to write on the board huge compounds in outward appearance Greek, which each described some harmless flower. The men of science so-called—I say so-called not to cast contempt on nature, but to protest that this word applies to knowledge of man's mind no less—who hate Greek like poison, use its dictionary to compound the most horrible simples. They are hoist with their own petard. Intoxicated with the exuberance of their own verbosity, they lose the power to speak as human beings, and not only fail to express any meaning they may have, but fall into fallacies of reasoning. I will quote here an instance, chosen because the reviewer in the *Athenaeum* (1910, p. 737) chose it for special praise, as a "specimen of argument":

The whole species of giant armadillo having been destroyed by the sabre-toothed tiger, the latter's teeth formation rendered it impossible for him to prey on any animal. The sabre-toothed tiger thus found himself in pronounced and fatal physiological isolation, which is only one of the many startling symptoms of retribution arising from a dysteleological life.

I must first translate this into English, that you may see what it is meant for—not what it means: that we shall see later:

The sabre-toothed tiger had teeth so shaped that he could not eat anything but the giant armadillo. When he had eaten all the giant armadillos, there was nothing left for him to eat. Last of all, he died also. This is startling, but it often happens so, because nature punishes those creatures which—

I confess I cannot make out what the rest does mean, but I seem to see that the tiger's unpardonable sin was that he was a specialist. Men of science so-called err in the same way as their tiger, and when their sabre-teeth have devoured all those who have studied Greek and the art of saying what they mean, they will find themselves in pronounced and fatal physiological isolation, unless they have used the meanwhile to learn how one sabre-toothed tiger can eat another. It was unkind in the reviewer to choose this as a specimen of argument; for in the first sentence our author has not said what he

means; he has said this: "Because all the armadillos were eaten, therefore the tiger's teeth were so formed that he could not eat anything else." And what is "pronounced isolation"? There is no reference in the argument to the pronunciation either of the tiger or of the armadillo. We are left to guess what word the tiger pronounced when he found that the armadillos were all done. "Physiological isolation" means, I suppose, that the tiger's teeth were so shaped that he could not eat anything now that there were no more armadillos: which has been said once already. And is it a symptom of retribution, or the retribution itself, that the tiger had to starve? As to "dysteleological," I give it up: but I guess that the tiger ought to have looked ahead, and got some other teeth ready for the time when the armadillos should be no more. That is a good moral, fit for serpent-toothed politicians as well as for sabre-toothed tigers; but I must say the blame here seems to lie with nature rather than the tiger. It was a mean sort of trick, a bad practical joke: startling, I agree, but the tiger could hardly help himself. The situation has its irony: if the tiger had known Greek he must have heard the proverb, "look to the end," and a precious life might have been saved.

If any one thinks that this is not a common style, let him purchase Sir T. Clifford Allbutt's "Notes on the Composition of Scientific Papers" (Macmillan): a good half-crown's worth. Here speaks a distinguished man of science, whose words must carry weight: not a benighted classical man fighting in the last ditch to save his own skin.

This last sentence is not meant to imply that the present writer so describes himself. No: he is rather holding a crown of gold over the head of one who rakes in the muckheap. Greek is more precious than fine gold: Greek is wisdom, comfort, and delight. Its very dry bones, as some might call them, have been the subject of the foregoing words: even in these there has been shown to be profit for the humblest, the most stumbling learners.

W. H. D. ROUSE.

Cambridge, England.

#### NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Details which have now been made public in regard to the Widener Memorial Library to be erected for Harvard, show that it is to be a building of great size and scope, larger, in fact, than the Boston Public Library, and nearly as large as that of New York. The work of demolishing Gore Hall is to begin at once, and until the new edifice is completed, Randall and Massachusetts Halls will serve for library. The structure will be 206 by 275 feet in round figures, the longest dimension being north and south. The main façade will front the interior of the yard, and



the main entrance will be directly south of Appieton Chapel. There will also be an entrance from the southerly side.

The façade will be impressive. On a portico, 129 feet long, which extends along the front of the building and is reached by a flight of wide steps at a height of twelve feet from the ground, will rise twelve Corinthian columns, each forty feet high. Behind the portico the main doors open into the library. On the lower floor of the building, the ceiling of which is on a level with the portico, will be large special reading-rooms for the departments of history, economics, and government, accommodating about 150 students. On the first floor will be housed the Harry Elkins Widener collection. The dominating feature of the second floor is to be the main reading-room, which will run across the front of the building facing the college yard, and extending 136 feet from east to west. It will be three stories in height and have seating capacity for 375 persons. The card-catalogue room will be on this floor at the head of the stairs, and behind this will be the delivery-room. On the third floor will be a large room for works on art and archaeology. The great cartography collection will also be housed on this floor.

The top floor provides quarters for the English library; the classical library, and other collections, the bindery, and a photographing-room. There will also be on this floor twenty or more rooms for seminars where teachers and their classes may be within easy reach of the reference-room. Special attention has been given to providing facilities for research work. There will be no less than eighty private rooms for the use of Harvard professors and scholars from other institutions who come to the Memorial Library for study. There will also be 350 small private studies, in which the books of a special subject may be brought together.

As yet, the cost of the new building has not been announced, but it will be considerably in excess of \$1,000,000. The plans for the structure are by Horace Trumbauer, of Philadelphia, who has done much architectural work for the Widener family. It is now hoped that the work will progress so that the Memorial Library can be dedicated on commencement day in June, 1914.

## Correspondence

### THE JAPANESE MASK PLAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Sometimes I have been puzzled to think where I am. I have heard so many stories of the ultra-European ways and things here in Japan; how thoroughly Hearn used to despise them! But I am quite certain I am in Japan this time, there's no mistake about it—Japan with poetry at heart." Thus my friend, a foreign critic of art and life exclaimed delightedly to me as we hurried to see a No performance.

Already from the outside of the house where we were waiting for admission we heard the long wailings, high notes, the piercing sound of flutes and *tsuzumi*, and

the curiously sad rhythm mingled with a background of high, distinct declamation.

"Doesn't it sound to you as if it were an old cry, perhaps a thousand years old, which has returned here to curse the modern Japanese civilization of the brandy-and-soda, single eyeglass kind? The sadness of tone bites one's heart, doesn't it?" he said. We smiled to each other, with acknowledgment on my part; and we entered the box. The quiet, even the no small measure of silence within, perfectly astonished him; I am sure it was the first time for him to observe how quietly a performance can be carried on if one wishes to. He was delighted even with those wooden tablets, on which the names were written, stuck on each box; he looked splendid, undoubtedly thinking he was among the select few. In fact, everything is run on a small scale, the stage to begin with, and with only a small audience admitted. "What though the stage be small," he began to say, "the performance simple and brief? That brevity is a great art. I learned it in your Japanese poem a long time ago, which is a song of crickets, a sigh and smile of flowers; limitation is the secret of all highest art. How can you call yourself an artist if you cannot put your soul of art within the limit of a small stage, and within a short period of time? The brief time and the little stage are the sure proof of the mighty value of this No performance as art. Look at the stage with its own roof; it has the dignity of its own existence which our Western stage has not; and that long gallery or bridge, along which the No actors move as spectres evoked from an unknown corner with the newest manner and attitude, is most satisfying with its suggestion of making a beginning and ending there; you might call it Life and Death. The No is the perfection of brevity of dramatic art; it might be compared with the Greek play or the modern Irish plays of Yeats and others. Our ordinary Western plays, doubtless, have a certain beauty of confusion; but we are tired of it. Here we have the No whose monotone makes us perfectly wearied at first, but will be the source of no small delight for many cultured minds. And you have to see the pictorial side of those magnificent dresses of stiff brocade which the actors wear dragging them along slowly to the cadence of the music; what epical dignity of the actors, and what a simple grandeur!"

The No, or this mask play, is not the creation of one time or one age; it has an old history, since it was born like a mystery from the national impulse and love of literature and legends, from our almost blind belief in Buddhism and ghosts, which was encouraged first in the feudal age by the Ashikaga lords from the fourteenth century down to the close of the sixteenth century. It was in those days that we formed the national epics, or poems—that is to say, the No plays. It was the first time, and last, in the history of Japanese literature to have the various traditions and legends, the certain Buddhist faith and imagination (those things hopelessly neglected by the aristocratic literature of the Kyoto court in the former age), dressed in pure literature. I said it was the last, because the novels and dramas that were sent out later on in

the Tokugawa age were not, in a large measure, new attempts from those of the Ashikaga's, but only an emphasis. Yoshimitsu, the third lord of the Ashikaga government, the propagandist of the tea ceremonies and refined arts, may be said to have been the first encourager of the No; and at the time of Yoshimasa, the eighth lord, it had been roughly completed as we have it to-day. In due time, Ashikaga's power declined; and the most wonderful war god arose on the horizon in the person of Hideyoshi, the Napoleon of Japan, who, on the other hand, was a no small patron of art and literature. The No was not left in oblivion in his time, but many new pieces were added to the already great numbers of the repertory, and alterations were made in those already in practice. When the time came down to the Tokugawa feudal era of the seventeenth century, the period of peace and prosperity, it had become the most important factor of the nation's life. To recite lines from the No, and to act on the stage if possible, was regarded to be one of a gentleman's accomplishments; the No play, in contrast to the common theatre, held the most dignified, noble place of entertainment. And so it is to-day. It was thought even sacred; and it began to assume the most necessary role at a wedding ceremony. With the singing of a passage from "Takasago," your wedlock will be sealed.

"Takasago," the happy play celebrating constancy, endurance, health, and longevity, is represented by an old man and an old woman busy in the work of raking up pine needles under the pine trees. The passage says: "True it is that these pine trees shed not all their leaves; their verdure remains fresh for ages long; even among evergreen trees—the emblems of unchangeableness—exalted is their face to the end of time—the fame of the two pine trees that have grown old together." What are these two pine trees? Who are the old man and woman? The ghosts of the trees are nothing but the old man and woman singing the age of golden and happy life.

Among some three hundred repertoires now in existence, there is no other like "The Robe of Feathers" that will gracefully carry the delicate, statuesque beauty of composition and sentiment. It is the play of a fairy whose feather-robe was stolen by a fisherman at Mio's pine-clad shore, while she was bathing, and upon her promise to dance was given back finally. Not to go to extremes, even in sadness, is taught in Japan to be the height of cultured manners; here we have every Oriental beauty and lamentation in this fairy who could not fly back to the sky, and sang:

Vainly my glance doth seek the heavenly plain,  
Where rising vapors all the air enshroud,  
And veil the well-known paths from cloud to cloud.  
And she promised that she would dance  
the dance that makes the Palace of the  
Moon turn round, and would leave her  
dance behind as a token to mortal men,  
if her robe could be restored her. However,  
the fishermen doubted that she might  
hurry home to heaven without dancing at  
all, then the fairy said:

Fie on thee! The pledge of mortals may  
be doubted, but in heavenly beings there  
is no falsehood.



As I said, the No is the creation of the age when, by the virtue of sutra or Buddha's holy name, any straying ghosts or spirits in Hades were believed to enter Nirvana; there is no wonder that most of the plays have to deal with those ghosts and Buddhism. That ghostliness appeals even to the poetical thought and fancy of modern age, because it has no age. It is the essence of the Buddhistic belief, however fantastic, to stay poetical forever. Although the No's repertoires do not change, our conception and understanding will be altered; it is thus that they can keep always fresh themselves. Here we have one play called "Morning Glory"; the flower cannot enter Nirvana on account of her short life of only one morning, and of her jealousies that burn on seeing the other flowers who enjoy a longer life. However, her ghost will disappear with satisfaction when the monk gives her a sermon that eternity is nothing but a moment, and to live in a moment is to live in the ages.

This mask play is the simplest affair, with not more than three characters. The three characters are enough to make real poetry move. And how many more do you want, I should like to know.

YONE NOGUCHI.

Kamakura, Japan, August 1.

#### WORDS IN THE BIBLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has, I believe, been no computation of the number of words employed in the Authorized Version of the Bible since George P. Marsh published his admirable "Lectures on the English Language" in 1861, later writers having been content to employ his result, with or without acknowledgment. Marsh (p. 263) calculates the number as "somewhat fewer than six thousand." Last year, being the tercentenary of the publication of the Authorized Version, I undertook a new computation of the number, employing for the purpose a much more complete instrument of research than was at Marsh's disposal—Strong's "Exhaustive Concordance of the Bible."

No two calculators would be likely to attain absolute agreement with respect to the words to be included. My own procedure has been as follows: all inflected words have been reduced to their dictionary-form—that is, possessives, plurals, etc., of nouns and pronouns have been reduced to the nominative singular, and thus counted only once; and the same is true of the inflected forms of the verb: e. g., *speakest*, *speakest*, *spake*, *spakest*, *speaking*, *spoken*, are all counted as *speak*. Present and past participles, used as adjectives or nouns, are counted as adjectives or nouns, and not merged under the type-form of the verb: thus (Mark 13:8), "These are the *beginnings* of sorrows"; (Prov. 9:17), "*Stolen* waters are sweet"; of these there are 279, including 14 present participles used both as nouns and adjectives: e. g., (2 Sam. 18:27), "The *running* of the foremost is like the *running* of Abimeaz the son of Zadok"; (Lev. 15:13), "Bathe his flesh in *running* water." Homonyms, whether different parts of speech from the same root or springing from different roots, are counted as separate words: thus (Gen. 9:2), "The *fear* of you and the

dread of you"; (Gen. 15:1), "*Fear* not, Abram"—(1 Sam. 17:34), "There came a lion, and a *beast*"; (Gen. 4:13), "My punishment is greater than I can *bear*"—(Judg. 4:21), "He was *fast* asleep"; (Acts 16:24), "made their feet *fast* in the stocks"; (Matt. 9:14), "Why do we and the Pharisees *fast* oft?" (Joel 1:14), "Sanctify ye a *fast*"; of these there are 307. The following are counted as different words: *Almug* and *algum*, *alway* and *always*, *astonied* and *astonished*, *betray* and *beuray*, *clad* and *clothed*, *compact* and *compacted*, *espy* and *spy*, *establiish* and *stablish*, *estate* and *state*, *incorruptible* and *uncorruptible*, *sometime* and *sometimes*, *straight* and *strait*, *thoroughly* and *throughly*, *travall* and *travel*. On the other hand, the following are not distinguished: *ax* and *axe*, *gray* and *grey*, *instructor* and *instrutor*, *naught* and *nought*, *veil* and *veil*, *wonderously* and *wondrously*. Proper nouns and adjectives are excluded, with the exception of *Almighty*, *Easter*, *Lord*, *Pentecost*. All Hebrew and Chaldean words are excluded, except *alleluia*, *amen*, *hosanna*, *rabbi*, and *shibboleth*. Of Greek words, *alpha* and *omega* are excluded.

On the basis thus indicated, I compute the number of words in the Authorized Version to be 6,568. If to these were added the inflected forms of nouns, pronouns, or verbs, excluded as above, the total would be 9,884. Whatever error there may be in these figures can hardly be considerable, though it would be rash to claim for them absolute exactness. If there are any who would prefer to change the basis of calculation, the data given above should be sufficient to enable the new total to be readily ascertained.

ALBERT S. COOK.

Yale University, September 4.

## Textbooks

### EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

The University of Manchester has just issued, as the fifth number of its Educational Series, a bulky "Outlines of Education Courses in the University of Manchester" (Longmans), the greater part of which consists of a readable and informing "Syllabus of a Course in the History of Education in England," by Prof. Michael E. Sadler. But the document is more interesting as one of a number of publications showing that the English non-conformist universities have begun to appreciate the possibilities of expansion contained in the American idea of special professional training for teachers. Conspicuous in this enterprise are the University of Manchester and Professor Sadler. We speak of the "American idea" because the literature quoted is almost exclusively American; and the attitude expressed in the references is often surprisingly naive and also somewhat perplexing. For the pedantry of scientific professional training, imported by us from Germany, is hardly congenial to the English mind, which, in matters of theory, places its confidence in a background of liberal culture and knowledge of the world. Rather vague about sensory tests and *questionnaires*, though respectful and admiring, the English works on education appear, so far, to be superior to our own in literary quality and ripeness of view.

So much, at least, is true of "The Evolution of Educational Theory" (Macmillan), by John Adams, professor of education in the University of London. As a whole, however, the book is disappointing. The first of an ambitious series on The Schools of Philosophy, under the editorship of Sir Henry Jones—a series designed to supply the English reader with a history of philosophy comparable to Ueberweg and Erdmann—we should have expected it to be a thoroughly reconstructive discussion of the whole field of educational philosophy. In historical scholarship, comprehensiveness of reading, and critical insight, Mr. Adams is apparently well equipped for the task, and the work is full of instructive passages. But as a whole it is loosely constructed and inconclusive. He begins, rather inauspiciously, with a lengthy discussion of the distinction of educator and teacher. One is tempted to suggest, as a virtually sufficient definition for present purposes, that an educator is one who talks about education; and it is hard to see what is gained by the substitution of educator and "educand" for the time-honored and fully significant distinction of teacher and pupil. Plato the teacher is at least as impressive as Plato the educator. After several chapters dealing with the data, the historical and pre-historic aspects, the social and individual aims, of education, he reaches what seems to be his main task, a discussion of educational theory under the heads of humanism, naturalism, idealism, and materialism. Here he is most unsatisfactory. His aversion to formal definition, together with a wide, but heretofore confusing, knowledge of the facts, simply leaves his reader in doubt regarding the distinguishing motives of these several tendencies and his own attitude in relation to them. A certain unity is given to the discussion, however, as well as a present significance, by constant reference to the issue of formal discipline—of liberal culture *versus* specific, or vocational, training. Mr. Adams is too clearly alive to the complexities of the problem to commit himself very flatly, but in general he accepts what he holds to be the present consensus of authority (to which, indeed, he is strangely deferential) in favor of vocational education; and in his final chapter he offers a suggestive prophecy, which is unfortunately not elaborated, of a social and educational order in which the distinction of educated and uneducated will disappear, though the distinction, without, perhaps, the distinctive superiority, of liberal culture will still be retained. Altogether, we must say of this book that it mainly reflects the bewildered suspense of most intelligent persons at present regarding the ends and aims of education.

Among the untroubled minds we must include Prof. Frank M. Leavitt, of the University of Chicago, who stands for vocational education because it is "real." Apparently nothing else is real, and thus we must infer that all of the realities of human life are contained within the workshop. Fortunately, his "Examples of Industrial Education" (Ginn) is only incidentally a discussion of theory and may be recommended as a timely and well-executed record of conditions already established in an important movement.

In James Phinney Munroe's "New Demands in Education" (Doubleday, Page) vocational training is only the first among

the real. This book is not a piece of cut and dried pedagogy, but a vigorous blast from one of wide experience as chairman and trustee against what he holds to be the futility of our schools—as shown in the domination of the school by the college, the poor quality and unprofessional attitude of the teachers, the neglect of the individual needs of pupils, and, among other things, the worship of the Ph.D., which he frankly stigmatizes as “the curse of American scholarship and American education.” In the last indictment those who have seen “methods of research” extended to the secondary schools may suspect that he is right. His own programme is summed up in the magical word “efficiency.” This means first, of course, vocational and manual training. As against Mr. Leavitt, he is unorthodox enough to say that manual training may be recommended on the score of intellectual discipline. But the programme also includes everything else. “The employers” (who, of course, are now to be the arbiters of the curriculum) are no longer satisfied with reading, writing, and ciphering, but demand also health, character, honesty, truth-telling, clean living, willingness to work, readiness to comprehend, fertility of resource, vision, alertness, vigor, self-command, dexterity—for the other half of their demands we must refer the reader to page 33. One is always led to wonder whether those who are active in denouncing present conditions have figured out the possibility of uniting all their demands, whether they have counted the cost of individual instruction, and whether they have ever paused to reflect that the curriculum of the three R's is itself the response to the traditional demand of “the employers,” who have heretofore proclaimed that business could be taught only in the practice of business.

An attractive little book, definite in its suggestions, and written with good taste and sound judgment, is Walter Sargent's “Fine and Industrial Arts in the Elementary Schools” (Ginn). Mr. Sargent is professor of aesthetic and industrial education in the University of Chicago, and his purpose is to outline a progression of standards of attainment and methods of instruction suitable to the several grades.

Calvin Dill Wilson's “Working One's Way Through College and University” (McClurg) is a Baedeker for indigent and faint-hearted sub-freshmen, supported by statistics and results of questionnaires which should enable it to serve also as a thesis for the doctor's degree. If any intelligent youth of good health doubts the possibility of “working his way through,” it is well that he be reassured; but it is a pity that the book cannot be used to dissuade those who have no real taste for what the college is supposed to give.

John Palmer Garber's “Current Educational Activities” (Lippincott) is a record of educational thought and activity in the year 1911. It is a useful book for those who wish to know what is being said and done.

A similarly useful work is G. E. Partidge's “Genetic Philosophy of Education” (Sturgis & Walton), in which the author has devoted himself, with heroic self-effacement, to systematic formulation of the educational philosophy of G. Stanley Hall, gathered from a bibliography of nearly three hundred titles. In an introduction

President Hall bears witness to the “fidelity of the representation.”

#### ENGLISH.

The new and revised edition of “English Composition in Theory and Practice” (Macmillan), by Professors Canby, Pierce, and MacCracken, and Messrs. May and Wright, of the Sheffield Scientific School, has profited by a number of changes, and is now clearly one of the best textbooks of its kind. Certainly, no other can vie with it in comprehensiveness. The chapters on the Whole Composition, the Paragraph, the Sentence, and the “Right Word” are unusually thorough, especially in disposing in advance of the misapprehensions that students are abundantly given to; and they contain a variety of excellent illustrations. All the “forms of discourse” are included in the book, the sequence being Exposition, Argumentation, Description, and Narration; and in each case the discussion is succeeded by a large number of “models.” Although many of these models are taken from the writing of the day—more than half of them, indeed—the book hardly suffers from a cheap contemporaneity, since they are almost uniformly sound in style and respectable in substance. But it is to be feared that the extract from the “reporting” columns of the New York *Sun*, which tells of a “rip-snorting tearing time” on the Polo Grounds, will win the attention of freshman students only too readily; it is hard to see why the authors of the book did not discard it in the present edition. As to the style of the text itself, most of the superfluous flippancies have been remedied, though here and there the appeal to the student is so intimate that the authors have retained certain phrases of decidedly dubious repute, and it must be added that the style is still ungraceful, if not stilted.

Somewhat more old-fashioned in tone and treatment is Prof. William T. Brewster's “English Composition and Style: A Handbook for College Students” (Century). Despite the fact that the book runs to 500 pages, it contains none of the “models” so much in vogue to-day. The four parts are devoted to Composition, Style, Discourse, and Versification. Concrete exercises, unusually well chosen, provide better and more ample suggestions for written work than the ordinary instructor is prepared to give. The chapters are eminently readable, and accord with the present tendency to a simple and philosophic, rather than formally dogmatic, manner of presentation; the first paragraph of the book, for instance, is a clear explanation of the difference between speaking and writing. Used in conjunction with a good prose anthology or with “real books,” this textbook ought to prove highly serviceable, particularly in sophomore classes.

So many difficulties beset him who seeks to prepare a literature syllabus that can be used to advantage by lecturers other than the author and his colleagues, that Prof. E. A. Greenlaw's excellent “Syllabus of English Literature” (Sanborn & Co.) is sure to be widely welcomed. It is a book of some 300 pages, half of which, being blank, are available for notes of any kind. Characteristics of literary movements, biographical outlines, dates of works arranged according to *genre*, brief bibliographies, etc., are all presented with such fulness

and distinctness that the lecturer is freed from the necessity of dictating the elementary information that ordinarily deadens survey courses in English literature. More material is given than is normally needed in such courses, so that instructors, by omitting and emphasizing as they see fit, may find the syllabus adapted to their aims and idiosyncrasies. Several books of this kind have been published in recent years, but none, in our judgment, so flexible, concise, and comprehensive. The paper, type, and binding are attractive, and the index is adequate.

A novel but sensible little textbook is “Selections from Boswell's Life of Johnson” (Merrill), edited by N. H. Batchelder, which is to be used parallel with Macaulay's essay on Johnson, both for purposes of illustration and of correction. There are no notes and elaborate introductory chapters, and none are needed. Other material for the study of Johnson may be had conveniently in a volume recently added to Holt's English Readings for Schools—“Macaulay's Life of Johnson, and Selections from Johnson's Writings,” edited by Prof. Chester N. Greenough, of Harvard University. This is equipped with a study of Macaulay, a chronological table of Johnson's life and times, excellent notes, and a few pages of capital “questions and topics for discussion.” Several of Johnson's prayers, it might be added, are included in the selections from Johnson's writings.

Whether, in the crowded programme of our grammar schools, there is room for instruction in “Arbitration,” may well be questioned; whether this study might profitably displace some other, is perhaps also a matter for question. Whoever wishes to experiment has at hand a well-written book entitled “The Friendship of Nations” (Ginn), by Lucile Gulliver, which is intended to be used as a supplementary reader, or at least as a manual of exercises for the observance of Peace Day.

A book for teachers rather than pupils is “Sources of Interest in High School English” (American Book Co.), by C. Edward Jones, associate superintendent of schools in Albany, N. Y. The vague title hardly indicates the contents of the book—the results of an investigation, conducted in seven cities of New York State, into the attitude of pupils towards the prescribed, as well as the voluntary, reading in English literature. The investigation ranged from the eighth grade of the primary schools to the third year of the high schools, inclusive, and the preferences of the boys and of the girls were tabulated separately. Since the syllabus used in the seven cities (New York city apparently was not included) conforms to the college-entrance requirements, the data and conclusions are applicable throughout most of the country. The value of the printed report lies in the accumulation of evidence rather than in the inferences drawn. In the matter of interest in style, for example, the writer, after pointing out that this interest at its highest is below that in plot at its lowest, observes that “this seems remarkable, as no subject in the whole course of study is receiving apparently so much emphasis as English composition”; but if one bears in mind that style, as such, can scarcely be expected to interest an immature aesthetic sense, and that interest



in plot and character inevitably overlaps if it does not include interest in style, the evidence is by no means "remarkable." The book abounds in charts and detailed synopses that ought to make teachers of literature in our high schools reflect. The problem of prescribed reading in these schools is sufficiently important to merit more investigation and sober discussion than it has had; for the reading habits of adolescence are in large measure the reading habits of maturity, and the reading habits of mature persons in this country, including college graduates, are not all that we have reason to desire.

#### CLASSICS.

An edition of Herodotus with English notes has been long needed. This want is adequately met in "A Commentary on Herodotus" (Frowde), by W. W. How and J. Wells. The first volume (books i-iv) is by Mr. How, the second (books v-ix) by Mr. Wells. Hude's text is followed, though no text is printed in this edition. The work is evidently not a commentary on Herodotus as Greek, so much as on Herodotus as an historian. Consequently there is almost no reference anywhere to grammatical or syntactical phenomena, nor is there any treatment of the dialect. Considering the great amount of study which has been devoted to the language of Herodotus during the last quarter of a century the omission of any treatment of the dialect in a book distinctly intended for undergraduates is surprising, even if we admit that American school books have gone to the other extreme. The editors are warm admirers and defenders of their author. They acknowledge his many errors of fact, but they insist upon his essential honesty, his genuine attempts at personal investigation, and the tendency of modern discovery to confirm or explain his stories. Many of the important questions involved are too extensive for the commentary and are relegated to the Appendices, twenty-three in all, in which the most recent information is given on all matters of history, ethnology, geography, and statistics which seem to need critical discussion.

The English Classical Association has recently collected in one pamphlet the reports of its various committees during the last eight years "On the Teaching of Latin and Greek" (London: John Murray). The reports included are those on "Spelling and Printing of Latin Texts" (1905), on the "Pronunciation of Latin" (1906), on the "Pronunciation of Greek" (1908), of the Curricula Committee "on the Teaching of Latin in Secondary Schools" (1907), and on a "Four Years' Latin Course for Secondary Schools in which the leaving age is about 16" (1909). In general it may be said that these reports place English classical teaching quite abreast of our own in the matter of pronunciation of Latin and Greek, and a little ahead of our own in the matter of curricula, which are at the same time more elastic and more definite than those in the United States. Most important are the suggestions of the last report as to the work of the first year of the four years' course—our "first year Latin." They are briefly: (1) the limitation of the vocabulary to about 500 of the commonest words; (2) the large use of oral question and answer in Latin based on the text read (here the teacher is

expected to provide most of the material himself); (3) much conversion of simple English sentences into Latin, in which the work should be largely oral; (4) the use of previous knowledge of French to help the pupils to a readier comprehension of Latin forms; (5) judicious employment of English and French cognates and derivatives.

The first book to meet specifically these requirements is "A First Year Latin Book" (Cambridge University Press; Putnam), by John Thompson. From the point of view of the above requirements, too little oral work is provided, but the amount of translation from English into Latin will look strange to American eyes. The use of French would also not be feasible here, and it may be doubted whether, except in a few cases, the learner will be helped by his knowledge of that language.

A useful edition of the "First Book of Livy" has been prepared by H. J. Edwards (Cambridge University Press; Putnam). The introduction of nearly fifty pages is devoted principally to the legends connected with the foundations of Rome and the history of the regal period. This discussion is simple, but comprehensive, and shows a full acquaintance with the results of recent excavation and study. The commentary is extensive, and deals almost entirely with matters pertaining to the historical narrative and with matters of language. The former is entirely adequate, but the treatment of the language is vague, inadequate, and sometimes trivial. Students mature enough to appreciate the historical discussion surely do not need to be told that a pluperfect in indirect discourse represents a future perfect of the direct form. A section on Livy's style and language might well have been added to the introduction, long as it is. That is the only serious lack in this edition.

#### MODERN LANGUAGES.

A French grammar not divided into lessons, and unprovided with exercises for composition, is of scant practical value to teachers in our schools and colleges. Such a book as Sonnenschein's "New French Grammar" (Frowde), even if "based on the recommendations of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology" is likely to be of little use to any but private students; and these, owing to the author's holding fast to the impractical separation of syntax from accidence, will have to read through most of the book before reaching such an elementary but important construction as the participle, here treated under the genitive case (pp. 151-2).

A practical and interesting book for beginners is Félix Weill's "French Newspaper Reader" (American Book Co.). Extracts from the best French newspapers and periodicals, covering a wide range of subjects, are discriminatingly chosen; and the editing, as in the case of Weill's previous book, the "Historical French Reader," is painstaking and accurate. Besides the vocabulary and notes, exercises for composition based on the texts, copious illustrations, and a plan of Paris are added.

Five of Voltaire's *Contes*—"Le Monde comme il va," "Zadig," "Memnon," "Micromégas," and the "Voyages de Scaramando"—appear in the Oxford Modern French series, with introduction and notes by H. W. Preston. The notes are copious and helpful,

and the makeup of the book is in accordance with the high standard with which the preceding volumes of the series have made one pleasantly familiar.

J. G. Robertson's "Outlines of the History of German Literature" (Putnam) is in a sense an abridgment of the author's comprehensive work on the same subject. It is written with the same good judgment and with due apportionment of space. A book of 300 pages, it offers more than its title promises; for the multitude of facts are woven into a connected narrative, and of the more ancient documents there are summaries as well as characterizations. Resolute omission of unimportant names would have saved some abruptness of transition and occasional faulty articulation; but the arrangement is, on the whole, skilful, and important matters are sufficiently conspicuous. A chronological table, containing parenthetical allusions to English literature, and an index, facilitate the use of the book as a manual of reference.

The edition of Lessing's "Nathan der Weise" (Pitt Press Series; Putnam), by J. G. Robertson, is distinguished by minute attention to the text, by sensible use of the work of historians, biographers, and previous annotators, and by a judicious discussion of the play in its many bearings. Professor Robertson succeeds in inspiring respect without in the least attempting to stifle criticism of the dramatic and poetic form. He does not mention Curme's edition (Macmillan), which his own seems destined to rival.

Edward Manley's "Ein Sommer in Deutschland" (Scott, Foresman) sets forth details of such a ramble as a group of inquisitive and conveniently loquacious people might make in Germany. Much of the matter is in the form of colloquial, but there is enough description to relieve the monotony, and there are innumerable illustrations of characteristic things, some of which, such as tickets, receipts, signs, and coins, are well calculated to arouse juvenile curiosity. Mastery of this book will put pupils in possession of much useful information about the affairs of German daily life.

Wildenbruch's "Rabensteinerin" appeals more to historical than to dramatic interest, and is not free from sentimentality and wordiness. Nevertheless, it is nowhere dull or difficult. The edition (Heath) of R. Clyde Ford furnishes in compact form all the supplementary information that pupils are likely to need.

#### HISTORY.

"A Short History of Europe (Modern)" by C. S. Terry (Dutton), is the second volume of a manual intended "to be read either as a textbook of European history or it may be used concurrently with a textbook of British history—in order that the student of British history may be able at every point to view it on a European background." The present volume, which is to be followed by a third on the nineteenth century, is a clear, concise, orderly, exposition of the great movements in European history from the Renaissance to the French Revolution. There are plenty of facts accurately stated, but they are grouped and presented in such a way as to bring into relief, rather than to obscure, the subject in hand. The first half of the book brings the narrative



to 1715; the last half deals with the rise of Russia, the growth of Prussia, greater Britain, the American War of Independence, the French Revolution, and the Coalition wars of 1806. The best parts of the book are those which deal with such subjects as the colonial expansion of England or the rise of Prussia; but Professor Terry is not so exclusively interested in political history as many English historians are, and he shows a due appreciation of the historical importance of intellectual movements in dealing with the Renaissance and the eighteenth century. Good judgment is shown in giving relatively a large amount of space to the description of the institutions of France in the Old Régime. The book is weakest, as might be expected, in dealing with the Revolution itself.

Three years ago the Committee of Eight, appointed by the American Historical Association, published its report on history in the elementary schools, in which it recommended for the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades a three years' course, devoted primarily to American history, but of which the first year should be given to an introductory study of European history. Two textbooks intended to be used in this introductory course have now been published—Bourne and Benton, "Introductory American History" (Heath), and S. B. Harding, "The Story of Europe" (Scott, Foresman). The plan of the committee contemplated a study of those aspects of European civilization which have entered into the civilization of America, and of the institutions of those countries which, by discovery and colonization, have been instrumental in transmitting the civilization of the old world to the new. Both books seem admirably adapted to the needs of the course as planned by the committee. To run hastily over two millenniums of European history picking out those ideas and institutions that have had an important as well as a permanent influence on America, and to present the whole in a way that will be intelligible to sixth-grade children, is assuredly no easy task, but one which, in the present instance, has been performed with care and ability. Professor Harding's book is about a third longer than that of Professors Bourne and Benton, but as both books devote about the same space to the discovery and settlement of America, Professor Harding has given much the fuller account of the Greek and Roman, and, particularly, of the mediæval period. Both books are written in a simple style, and both are well furnished with useful illustrations. Professor Harding has not been convinced by the arguments of Vignaud, for he accepts both the chart and the letter of Toscanelli. Professors Bourne and Benton follow the wiser course, probably, in saying nothing about Toscanelli, while assuming that Columbus aimed to reach the East Indies.

"Elements of Economics" (Macmillan), by Burch and Nearing, is a manual of about 350 pages, designed for use as a textbook in secondary schools. The authors have attempted to make a "simple statement" of the fundamental principles of the "newer economics." The newer economics maintains that "true advancement lies, not in the production of goods, but in developing the lives of men and women." The authors acknowledge their indebtedness to Professor

Patten, and the book clearly shows the influence of his teaching. The divisions of the work are, in order, consumption, production, exchange, distribution, and economic experiments and programmes. The desire to avoid abstraction as much as possible accounts for the relatively fuller treatment of the subject of production; while the plan of emphasizing conditions in the United States has resulted in the inclusion of several chapters dealing particularly with such subjects as American agriculture, business organization, transportation and the regulation of transportation in the United States. The style is simple and seemingly well adapted to elementary students.

#### SCIENCE.

Van Nostrand & Co. present another volume of their Electrical Installation Manuals. The new hand-book is on "Testing, Fault Localization and General Hints for Wiremen," by J. Wright.

H. S. Carhart and H. N. Chute have now prepared a "First Principles of Physics" (Allyn & Bacon). It will prove to be an excellent textbook. It is well written, presents the subject in a scientific way, and is interesting. The authors have written the book because most of the writers of recent texts have tried to popularize the subject to such an extent that pupils have reached the end of their study with few definite ideas and little knowledge of the science itself.

Two new books on algebra for preparatory students have been received. "The First Principles of Algebra" (Allyn & Bacon), by Prof. H. E. Slaught and Dr. N. J. Lennes, is fairly good. The writers aim to provide a gradual and natural introduction to algebra, and to give "vital purpose to its study by using it to do interesting and vital things." The first aim is correct enough, but the second is somewhat foolish, for, after all, the writers are trying to teach algebra and not to do other valuable and useful things. If algebra were not valuable in itself, it would be rather a mistake to insist on its study. Of course, what they mean is that so-called practical problems have been introduced. This is a good plan, so long as the problems are used to illustrate algebra and not to make algebra subordinate to other valuable things. "First Year Algebra" (Heath), by Webster Wells and Walter W. Hart, is very well done. The exercises are graded, and specimen solutions are carefully worked out. The descriptive problems are interesting and well adapted to their purpose.

The teaching of Euclidean geometry has changed radically. Instead of confining the instruction to a formal presentation of the problems of geometry, these are cut down to almost skeleton outlines and the emphasis is put on a great number of exercises which the pupil is expected to solve. The exercises include not only abstract geometrical problems, but also the construction of geometric patterns, architectural designs, and graphic statics. Geometry thus becomes a kind of cement to bind together algebraic analysis and mechanical construction. There is no question but that the chief purpose in teaching mathematics should be to train pupils to solve problems and to know the laws, whether they are interesting or not, and it is the opinion of

many mathematicians that this discipline is somewhat neglected. Judging from recent elementary textbooks, college teachers will later on encounter a set of flabby mathematicians in their classes. Except for this criticism, "Plane Geometry" (Ginn), by William Betz and H. E. Webb; "Plane and Solid Geometry" (American Book Co.), by C. A. Hart and David D. Feldman, and "A Shorter Geometry" (Cambridge University Press; Putnam), by C. Godfrey and A. W. Siddons, can be recommended as carefully prepared. The writers are experienced teachers, and they have collected interesting problems from many sources.

The same criticism, somewhat modified, may be made of "Practical Mathematics and Geometry" (Van Nostrand), by E. L. Bates and Frederick Charlesworth. The book is stiff enough, but the idea is given that beginners who may later separate into different professions, should learn mathematics in different ways. But what all teachers of the scientific professions wish is to have students who are able to solve problems. The professional information they obtain in their early years is quite unimportant.

The fact that Marshall's little laboratory hand-book, "The Frog" (Macmillan), has gone through eleven editions since its appearance in 1882, and that it still holds its place in some of the best laboratories, is sufficient evidence of its worth. It was intended as a practical guide to the study of elementary anatomy, histology, and embryology; its directions for dissection, and for the preparation and preservation of tissues are clear and concise. Where from its small size, or for other reasons, the frog has proved unsuitable, other animals are substituted. To the eleventh edition, edited by F. W. Gamble, there have been added sections on the elements of cell-division and the development of the germ cells.

The amateur microscopist soon finds that there is no dearth of guide books intended for his use. One of the most recent, Rev. Charles A. Hull's "How to Use the Microscope" (Macmillan), has the merit of being well-written, based on wide experience, and thoroughly practical. Avowedly for the novice, it makes no pretence of offering advice to the expert microscopist. In addition to a discussion of the simple and compound microscopes and the more important accessories, there is a chapter on the preparation and mounting of what a well-known microscopist has called "Oh, my!" objects, and a helpful discussion of simple photomicrography. The book is illustrated by the usual text figures and by twenty excellent full-page illustrations from photo-micrographs of the unfailing fly's proboscis, human flea, eye of an insect, and several whose presence could not have been foretold.

Dr. G. Senter, lecturer in the University of London, puts forth as his chief reason for adding another "Textbook of Inorganic Chemistry" (Van Nostrand) to the large number already existing the following:

It is now generally recognized that the newer views have contributed enormously to the development of chemistry, but, in spite of this fact, their general adoption into courses of elementary instruction in this country has been very slow. The present book is written throughout from the modern standpoint, and it is hoped that it may contribute in some degree to the wider use of the newer principles at a relatively early stage in chemical courses.

But what is radical in England seems conservative to us. The theories of mass action and dissociation which the author somewhat timidly and unobtrusively introduces into his textbook have been made the basic principles of elementary instruction in American universities for the past ten years. Although not so revolutionary as it appears to the author, the book is none the less valuable—563 pages of good, solid descriptive matter on the elements and their important compounds, followed by a chapter on radio-activity, and an index. No directions for student laboratory work are included, but the text contains many line drawings of apparatus, some of which would be "marked down" on the score of clumsiness, if set up in an American laboratory.

## Literature

### PATERNAL GOVERNMENT.

*Social Insurance in Germany, 1883-1911.*

By William Harbutt Dawson. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, \$2 net.

Mr. Dawson's latest book should be widely read. It deals with a subject to which the whole English-speaking world is giving a great amount of thought. The last few years have produced the National Insurance Act, the Old Age Pension Act, and the Workman's Compensation Act in Great Britain, and various Workmen's Compensation Acts in the United States. Germany began her career of compulsory general insurance about a generation ago, her latest legislation being the Insurance Consolidation Act of 1911. In the volume before us Mr. Dawson states the principal provisions of the German legislation in language as little technical as possible.

He frankly records his high opinion of the benefits of obligatory insurance, as practiced in Germany. While no formal attempt is made to estimate the relative advantages conferred upon the working classes by the three independent systems of insurance—against sickness, accident, and invalidity and old age—special emphasis has been laid upon the measures which are adopted, with yearly increasing persistence, to prevent and eradicate the evils which monetary benefits at best can only minimize and palliate. No one, we are told, who has followed the development of the German social insurance systems and who knows the immense educative influence which they have exerted upon the working classes, can doubt or wonder that it is the preventive work of the insurance organizations—as applied alike to disease and accident—which most appeals to the imagination, sympathy, and confidence of those in whose interest these laws have been passed.

For, after all, in Germany, as everywhere else, what the self-reliant workman values more highly than distress benefits is, in Mr. Dawson's judgment, a fair

and full use of his faculties. What he desires is not sickness-pay, but a healthy life; not accident compensation, but sound limbs and unimpaired energies; not infirmity pensions, but the opportunity and the power to follow as long as possible the employment of his choice. Hence, in their aggressive campaign against disease and their constant endeavor to lessen the risks to limb and life in industrial occupations, the insurance authorities have from the first been conscious of the good will of the working classes, and have from no quarter received greater encouragement and praise than from the recognized leaders of organized labor.

Others who have made a careful study of German social insurance have reached quite different conclusions. Dr. Ferdinand Friedensburg, for example, who was for twenty years a member of the Imperial Insurance Office, has told of the difficulties encountered by the Office in gaining the confidence of the people, and especially of the so-called working classes. Even the Imperial Insurance Office is not omnipotent, and there are impossibilities even in workmen's insurance. Nevertheless, to quote Dr. Friedensburg, the insured, "spoiled as they have been, now become stubborn and ill-bred; and many petitions are filled with insults and threats to appeal to the Emperor, to Bebel, and to the Social-Democrat *Vorwärts*." Indeed, it is alleged that social insurance, though specially designed to replace pauperism and charity, is itself merely pauperism under another form, and that it has become a hotbed of fraud, and therefore a spreader of demoralizing practices and ways of thought.

Mr. Dawson's book contains pictures of hospitals and sanatoria erected in connection with the preventive work of the German state insurance. He does not tell us that one of these sanatoria which, it was estimated, could be built for 500,000 marks, finally cost 2,700,000, and that it included a hall which the architect declared to be a modern imitation and adaptation of the Baths of Caracalla, to say nothing of a bowling-alley which required an expenditure of 18,000 marks, while the patients were to be entertained by four orchestras, at 12,000 marks each. With food and drink and entertainment such as they had never dreamed of, it is not surprising that many of the inmates preferred the hospitals to their own homes.

Only the vaguest hint is conveyed of any tendency on the part of the German people to misuse the state insurance. And yet from other sources it is easy to glean that a strong tendency of this description has existed. For example, it cannot be contended that accidents incurred on the way to work are properly industrial, yet all kinds of indirect methods have been devised to help those who have thus been injured to pro-

cure pensions. A farmer who had been injured on his way to church claimed that he was going to pray for rain, that his journey had therefore been made in the interests of agriculture, and that he should receive compensation for his accident. Equally absurd is the case of a woman who injured her finger in undressing her young daughter, and who insisted that, as the child had kept the geese, the undressing should be regarded in the same way as unharnessing a draft animal—that is, it should be accounted an agricultural operation. The volumes of court decisions are said, though not by Mr. Dawson, to contain an astonishing list of calamities that have been forced into the category of accidents incurred in the course of occupation.

That the good will of the working classes is as pronounced as Mr. Dawson would have us believe, seems somewhat doubtful. It has been openly charged that every one who can possibly do so endeavors to escape from the burdens of insurance. Both the employer and the employee contribute to the insurance fund, and there are penalties for non-payment of dues. The delinquencies of the working classes have, it is said, forced the corporations to counter-measures to obtain what is due them, and this statement seems to be borne out by statistics; for in 1908 the fines collected by the insurance companies amounted to 268,177 marks, and those by the trade associations to 412,608 marks.

The cost of insurance is another matter regarding which Mr. Dawson leaves us in doubt. His figures for the direct and immediate cost may be held fairly satisfactory, but what these figures mean with reference to the whole industry of the nation is far from clear. Approximately the aggregate cost of social insurance in Germany, independently of state subsidies and charges upon public authorities, may to-day be placed at £53,500,000. The general opinion is that the burden on the employers from all three systems of insurance is equal to about 4 per cent. of the wages bill. As for the working people, it is probable that the predominant ratio is above rather than under 3 per cent. of their wages.

A better idea of the cost of German social insurance may be obtained from the study of concrete cases. In 1907 the Krupps paid into the insurance funds an amount equal to 2 per cent. on their share capital. In addition, they made contributions of £86,633 to voluntary pension and benefit funds, and of £177,412 to works of general welfare, making a total of £440,885, or nearly 5 per cent., on the share capital, paid in welfare contributions of all kinds. The cost to the "Vulkan" Shipbuilding Company of insurance and welfare contributions was 7¼ per cent. of its capitalization. Similar expenditures by one of the largest smelting and mining compa-



nies of Westphalia amounted to nearly 3½ per cent. of share capital. Another Westphalian concern paid the equivalent of 5½ per cent. of its capitalization for sickness and pension contributions and for infirmity insurance. Insurance alone cost four other companies 4.4 per cent., 3.3 per cent., and 4.4 per cent., respectively, of their share capital.

The question whether, and to what extent, German industry is handicapped by the three insurance charges is one which, as Mr. Dawson rightly says, cannot be answered by the help of abstract argument. In the protected home market the cost of insurance is to some extent a matter of indifference to the employers, since all alike have to pay it and take it into account in fixing prices. The consumer, in this as in so many other cases, pays the tax, and then wonders why the cost of living is so high.

Mr. Dawson has apparently convinced himself that state insurance is in no danger of adversely affecting the trade of Germany. This view is not unanimously held by the leaders of German industry. In the reports of the various chambers of commerce we find less hopeful forecasts. Lübeck, for example, has sent out a warning "against an excessive tension of the burdens of social policy." From Essen has come this:

We must soon reckon with a burden of about 1,250,000,000 marks each year, laid upon our industrial activity simply and soberly for purposes of social insurance. We are far from opposing either the legislation or the development of our social insurance, but in view of the alarmingly rapid rise of all these assessments, we must emphatically admonish the reader of the fact that once these burdens are assumed, they must be permanently borne, whether our foreign competitors follow us or not; and they must be borne in times of economic depression no less than in those of economic prosperity. And, should there come times when our industrial activity—or even merely essential parts of it—should no longer be able to meet the social obligations legally imposed upon it, then there will be no alternative except for the state as the state to assume those burdens, if it is to avoid a catastrophe whose scope none can foresee, even so far as social conditions are concerned.

Though this new book of Mr. Dawson is very far from being the last word on German social insurance, it is nevertheless a timely and valuable publication. The larger part of it is devoted to outlining the insurance law as it stands to-day and to describing the functions by which it is made operative. Here is a veritable armory of facts for those interested in this most important subject.

Not the least interesting chapter of the book is that on Early Experiments in Insurance. Here we are informed that the present legislation has clearly

carried forward ideas and tendencies which have been peculiar to German state policy for many generations. Though Bismarck is quoted as saying, in 1882, that it was the tradition of the dynasty which he served to take the part of the weaker in the economic struggle, our author does not attempt to hide the fact that the policy of the last thirty years sprang largely from expediency. Bismarck's idea was "to bribe the working classes, or, if you like, to win them over to regard the state as a social institution existing for their sake and interested in their welfare." As a matter of fact, his aim was to defeat the Socialists at their own game. Socialism was his *bête noire*, and in the seventies he was fertile in legislative proposals to suppress it. After the second attempt on the life of the Emperor in 1878, he succeeded in getting through his Socialist law, which continued in force for twelve years. Payment for this legislation was made by the Prince in the form of "social reform legislation," the insurance laws being the immediate outcome.

#### CURRENT FICTION.

*The Friar of Wittenberg.* By William Stearns Davis. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Certainly no one can accuse Mr. Davis of lacking courage. Having written his first novel around Julius Caesar, he has now selected for the hero of his latest Martin Luther. Will he proceed to the Hero as Man of Letters, and make use of Dr. Johnson next? That would scarcely be a harder task than he has attempted in "The Friar of Wittenberg." The story covers Luther's life from his attack on Tetzel to his retirement in the Wartburg. The history and biography are rather thinly sugar-coated with a love story. Walter, Graf von Regenstein through his German father, and Conte di Palaestro through his Italian mother, has been brought up as a fashionable young nobleman at the court of Leo X. He is the accepted lover of Marianna, a dark and treacherous beauty, daughter of the unscrupulous Cardinal Forli. Banished to Germany for suspected complicity in a murder planned by Forli, Walter comes under the influence of Luther, and falls in love with fair-haired Ilse von Blankenburg. From this point the good and evil feminine angels contend for the Count—not merely metaphorically, but at last in personal combat. We do not recall any other novel in which the virtuous heroine rids herself of her wicked rival by superior muscle and a dagger-thrust. More surprising still, Ilse, an emancipated nun, feels no compunction at the time or later; it is true that she can plead self-defence.

In spite of this extraordinary scene, Ilse is kept for the most part in the

background, and Luther holds the centre of the stage. The novelist ingeniously works in many of his sayings, and takes advantage of the opportunities offered by the dramatic moments in his career. The great scene before the Diet of Worms, for instance, is admirably described. But if we look for the man Luther, we shall not find him. Instead of the sturdy peasant-preacher, with his dogmatism, his humor, his frequent grossness and vindictiveness, his intense humanity, we shall find a saint purged of earthly passion, ideally charitable in temper, almost courtly in manner, with a modern indifference to dogma such that he can tell a disciple, "Do not fret too sorely about matters of faith and belief." This is hardly the man who declared that Zwingli was damned for not believing in the real Presence, and who called his opponents "damnable rotten worms" and "snivelling, drivelling sophists bred by the Thomist swine." Readers who want a dehumanized Luther (Luther with Luther left out) can find him here; those who are interested in the man will do better to read a good biography.

*High Bradford.* By Mary Rogers Bangs. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

This story of a Cape Cod village has the exquisiteness of a piece of old china. There is all the salt of seaport tales, and there are all the delicate old hues of days faded and gone. Its distinctive mark is the evidence of antiquarian research. It is not only the neighbors' doings that form the story, but the family tree, the inherited traits, the ancestral voyages, the touch upon the fates of High Bradford of revolutionary France and savage South Sea islands. We know what High Bradford ate, drank, and wore; what songs it sang, what books lay on its tables, what ornaments on its mantelpieces. Though humor of character drawing is not absent, this is not the story of comic old sea-dogs. Gently amused at Lady's Albums and Tupper philosophies, the author herself has a style that might have been derived from the elegancies she tenderly smiles at. These are men who have done world's work and women who have not only baked and brewed, but studied and thought and taught. For all the refinement of coloring they stand out sturdily, each a distinct character. The stories of a score of neighbors and relatives are told with due mingling of joys and griefs. For background there are flowering meadows and wooded pond on the one hand, on the other the well-loved and always pervading sea.

*Unquenched Fire.* By Alice Gerstenberg. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

The rich society girl who feels the call of art and goes on the stage is again the subject of a novel. She is becoming



a type with only minor variations to distinguish her from the other members of a vast sisterhood. Jane Carrington of Chicago may be known from the rest by a more measured and reasonable pace, for which we thank her. There are some cleverish drawing-room scenes before art's call has become irresistible, and some interesting glimpses afterward of stage rehearsals under an inspiring manager. And there is enough and to spare of freakishness in the heroine's conduct; as in her sudden desertion of her fiancé; her breach of faith with her travelling companions, whom she forsakes almost at the gang-plank to establish herself in New York and haunt the offices of theatrical agents. Then very usual things happen to her, in small successes, financial failure, despair to the point of thoughts of gas, and then a gallant playwright to the rescue. Still failure, and, as a matter of course, in the end a dazzling stellar outbreak. The ordinary gloom of such stories is here tempered to the shorn public. The temptations seem a little trumped up and the tragedy a little trumpery. Most unforgivable of all, Jane's starry ending leaves us still in the vague. We see her twinkle, but how we wonder what she did next!

*Miss Billy's Decision.* By Eleanor H. Porter. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Here is continued the history of "Miss Billy," who in an earlier story made havoc in the house of three bachelor brothers when she came to live with them as her dead father's friends. Now she has grown up, has been engaged to one brother much too old for her, and is engaged to another of the three, an artist. Her fears that his nature is one to care for her chiefly as a girl to be painted, his fears that she has her music more at heart than she has him, lead to a misunderstanding made more serious because there is a beautiful other girl whose portrait is to be painted, and a rising tenor who sings duets with Billy. But time, an automobile accident, and publishers' limits bring all to a happy ending. Billy's early experience is revived with a difference in the case of the tenor who is familiarly called Mary Jane, his initials being M. J. This, however, constitutes a humorous episode rather than a link in the plot. Plot, for that matter, is less a feature of the story than little paths of pleasantness and peace which run through Boston and through the familiar regions of all-conquering girlhood and conquerable difficulties. Visits are made to concert and opera, old teapots are considered, deeds of kindness done, and meals served regularly, all in a wholesome and merry spirit. "Happy ending" must be said figuratively. We are sure we shall hear of Billy again.

#### LANG'S ENGLISH LITERATURE.

*History of English Literature from "Beowulf" to Swinburne.* By Andrew Lang. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.75 net.

This posthumous work of one who gloried in the title of hack writer and, indeed, almost glorified that trade, will attract some attention for its author's name, and for its own qualities deserves more notice than the ordinary school book.

In one respect at least its influence will be wholesome. Mr. Lang, although he is himself deeply washed in the romantic dye, writes of the Elizabethan poets in a manner that is beginning to grow rather common, but is nevertheless a much-desired change from the uncritical attitude of Swinburne, and Stopford Brooke, and Saintsbury, not to mention Charles Lamb himself, from whom the mischief sprung. Mr. Lang's treatment of Shakespeare is not wanting in proper enthusiasm, but he is far from subscribing to the sentiment which can be found in a certain textbook to the effect that everything Shakespeare did was the best in its kind. Our present critic can, for instance, speak thus candidly of "Troilus and Cressida":

Shakespeare when he wrote it "was for one hour less noble than himself." . . . Shakespeare made an impossible blend of Homer (of whom he clearly knew a little), of Ovid, and of the mediæval forms of the Tale of Troy. The elements are wholly incompatible, and the mood of the poet, whether he wrote the play early or late, was unenviable.

Similarly Mr. Lang deals justly and critically with Chapman. He recognizes the "very noble passages of reflection, in which Chapman always shines," but he knows, too, that the translation of the "Iliad," despite Keats's golden sonnet, is on the whole a barbarous and unreadable piece of work. "A splendid swinging metre," Saintsbury calls the "fourteeners" in which the English "Iliad" appeared; "a jiggling old measure," Mr. Lang calls them, and Mr. Lang is right. In this way one might go through the whole section on the Elizabethan poets. No doubt Mr. Lang may err here and there, but the sum of his criticism in its literary bearing is sound; it will help to release our teaching still further from the intolerable mode of praise which until recently has been in vogue.

From another point of view Mr. Lang's work, even in these Elizabethan chapters which are on the whole the best in the book, must be regarded as very inadequate. He is pointed, clear, and judicious generally in his æsthetic criticism of individual writers, but he is lamentably weak in seizing the philosophic connection of man with man, and school with school. There is little sense of development, no appreciation of the informing power of great ideas.

Thus Bacon, to take one of the high Elizabethans, is finely appreciated as an essayist, but of his influence, whether real or supposed, on the new world of thought, no one would guess from Mr. Lang's rather jaunty paragraphs.

This weakness runs through the book. When Mr. Lang comes to such an author as Hobbes, his treatment can only be described as totally incompetent. Hobbes was one of the great ethical sources in the next age; of his place you would gain no notion from this book. His similarity and contrast with Rousseau you may have reflected on as one of the cardinal facts of literary history, if that history is anything more than æsthetic appreciation; you will get no help in your reflection from Mr. Lang. This is a pity, for to vitalize the study of literature in our colleges, just this sort of reflection needs to be emphasized. No qualified French critic would dare to pass so superficially over a name like that of Hobbes. For another instance of this weakness we may point to Mr. Lang's treatment of the heroic drama. The work of Dryden and his contemporaries in this field is estimated at its true value, or lack of value. But you would never learn from Mr. Lang why the drama of Corneille and Racine is one of the noble literary achievements of the world, whereas the imitation of it in England is false and empty. Perhaps this same inability on the part of Mr. Lang to see the deeper sources and larger connections made it possible utterly to omit the name of one who is coming more and more to be recognized as the first great romantic. What is to be said of a "History of English Literature" that does not even mention William Blake?

It would be easy to multiply these defects and faults—to point, for instance, to the superficial treatment of Byron's "Don Juan," which is barely mentioned and receives less attention than many a short poem of entire insignificance. The fact is that to write such a history, condensing into brief space the whole literature of a people, is a task of extreme, almost insuperable difficulty; whereas Mr. Lang, so far as can be judged from results, entered upon the undertaking in a kind of *gaieté de cœur*, as a book to be jotted down at intervals between more arduous kinds of writing. We regret the duty of criticising so harshly the work of so genial a spirit, now forever gone from us.

*Selected Writings of William Sharp.* Arranged by Mrs. William Sharp. Vol. I. Poems; Vol. II. Studies and Appreciations. New York: Duffield & Co.

Admirers of William Sharp will welcome this edition of his acknowledged works uniform in style with the edition of "Fiona Macleod." Of the latter

the *Nation* (February 16, 1911) has already expressed its opinion at some length, and there is no need on the present occasion to say anything about the relation of Mr. Sharp to his ghostly double. Nor is there any ground for comparing the "Studies and Appreciations" of the present edition with the prose of Fiona. Literary criticism did not come within the ken of that shadowy sibyl, and is not represented in her works. Criticism, indeed, of any sort was not the strongest trait of Mr. Sharp's mind, and it is perhaps a little unfortunate that this first volume of his prose should be given up to his writings in this genre.

We do not mean to say that there are not many interesting pages in these essays: Mr. Sharp was too well practiced in the craft of writing to fail utterly in any of its branches. He was in particular a student of the sonnet form, and the prefaces to his "Sonnets of the Nineteenth Century" and his "Songs and Sonnets of Shakespeare," here reprinted, convey solid information (though he accepts without reservation the unfounded identification of Shakespeare's "dark woman" and Mary Fitton) and contain some rather nice discriminations. The study of "La Jeune Belgique" will interest those who care to know about the movement of which Maeterlinck has come to be the accredited chief. Your reviewer, for one, has been pleased to learn here the name of the Belgian author, Léon Montenaeken, of the lilting verses which had long haunted his memory as an unclaimed thing of beauty, *adespoton*:

La vie est vaine:  
Un peu d'amour,  
Un peu de haine . . .  
Et puis—bon jour!

La vie est brève:  
Un peu d'espoir,  
Un peu de rêve . . .  
Et puis—bon soir!

So, too, interesting quotations abound in the essays on "The Modern Troubadours" and on "Italian Poets of Today." But in general there is something loose in Mr. Sharp's critical method, as may be seen particularly in his study of "Sainte-Beuve." His judgment does not carry weight; his statements are not always accurate; his enthusiasms need discounting; and his language often displays a certain stiffness and flatness which indicate that the author is out of his proper field.

Of the volume of poetry we are obliged to say that it sins by including much which might be forgotten, and that its bulk emphasizes a certain note of monotony. The mere sensitiveness to the shifting charms of nature cannot long hold the reader's attention, and a poet who depends almost entirely on the spell of reverie may find that in his hearer the mood soon passes into slumber. Mr. Sharp's verse, both that which

he published under his own name and that which he attributed to Fiona, lacks the "fundamental brainwork" which, as he might have learnt from his master, Rossetti, underlies all good writing. But we would not exaggerate the defects of Mr. Sharp. Here, as everywhere, his sensitiveness to beauty and his easy surrender to fleeting emotions have not been barren of happy results. As a specimen of his poetical work at its best we may quote part of the "Moonrise on the Antarctic":

The huge white icebergs silently  
Voyage with us through this lonely sea,  
Noiseless and lifeless, yet they seem  
Like haunted islands in a dream  
Holding strange secrets that no one  
May know and live. In the bright sun  
They shine immeasurably fair,  
Bluer than bluest summer air,  
Or clear to the very heart with green  
Pure light, or amethyst as seen  
Mid sunset-clouds—but now they shine  
With a cold gleam and have no sign  
Of loveliness . . .  
. . . And now the spectral isles  
Grow whiter, icier still, and seem  
More hollow, with a strange weird gleam  
As though some pale unreal fires  
Consumed them to their utmost spires  
Yet without flame or heat. And still  
The moon doth rise, and seems to fill  
Each berg anew with life: we sail  
Upon a strange sad sea, where pale  
And moonshine isles float all around,  
Voyaging onward without sound.

*Mesopotamian Archaeology: An Introduction to the Archaeology of Babylonia and Assyria.* By Percy S. P. Handcock, M.A. With numerous illustrations, also maps. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.50 net.

The father of Assyriology is Sir Henry Rawlinson. On his decipherment of the great Behistun inscription depends the whole of modern Assyriology. To him we owe also those first four volumes of publications of Assyrian texts by the British Museum, which constituted the first library of Assyrian scholars. There has, however, been a tendency on the part of German scholars to minimize his services, partly because of prejudice against and ignorance of English work in general, partly because of that academic habit of exploring minutiae and magnifying the small at the expense of the great. The first actual determination of any cuneiform signs was made by Grotefend, a Hanoverian schoolmaster, in the year 1802. He thought he had deciphered thirty signs; in fact, eight were correct. He was never able to translate a real inscription, and his work did not exert any apparent influence on the later decipherment of the cuneiform inscriptions. Nevertheless, in all German works on the subject and in American works depending on German scholarship, great importance relatively is given to Grotefend, whereas the epoch-

making work of Rawlinson is almost ignored.

To our great surprise we find that something of the sort has been done in the present volume, although written by an Englishman. To Grotefend's discovery, meritorious in itself but having little if any relation to the later development of cuneiform decipherment, are given some three pages, while Rawlinson's work has only one. It is as if, in an account of the discovery of America, Paolo Toscanelli received three times the space assigned to Columbus.

In the chapter on life, manners, etc. (p. 367) the chicken is mentioned among the birds used as offerings in the early Sumerian period, and on page 370 it is mentioned as among the birds included in the bill of fare of the members of Urukagina's court at Lagash. Hehn, in his "Kulturpflanzen und Haustiere," states that the cock was not known in Babylonia until the Persian, or possibly the very end of the neo-Babylonian, period. Schrader, in his posthumous edition of Hehn's work, adds a note, in which he states that the cock was known in Babylonia in the Sumerian period and was commonly used for sacrifice among the Assyrians, with other similar statements for which he gives absolutely no authorities. It is true that certain Babylonian scholars have recently translated various words in Sumerian name lists as cock, basing such translation generally on a transliteration of the characters having an imaginary resemblance to the sound made by the cock. These transliterations are, however, pure guesswork, as is the translation. There is absolutely no foundation on which to rest the claim of the appearance of the cock in Sumerian or even Assyrian inscriptions other than these entirely hypothetical transliterations and translations of unknown words and characters. When we turn to the monuments—seal cylinders and other archaeological remains—we find abundant representations of the goose and the duck, the ostrich, the dove, and various other birds, but the cock does not appear until the Persian period. It may be added that in none of the Semitic languages have we an ancient name for cock, nor is there any word for the cock common to the Semitic languages. The cock originated in India, on the southern slope of the Himalayas, and, passing northward and westward, entered Asia Minor and Europe. The earliest notices of the bird in those regions carry us back perhaps to about 700 B. C., at least 1,500 years later than the period in which our author supposes the cock to have been a familiar article of food and sacrifice among the Sumerians. For reasons which it would take too long to discuss here, the cock did not, in fact, enter Babylonia until a much later date, circa 500 B. C., having been brought in



by the Persians. It does not appear in Palestine before the Hellenistic period, nor in Egypt before the Roman.

These are, however, minor matters. This work is a welcome addition to our handbooks of archaeology. It is the first systematic attempt to gather together, within a reasonable compass, the archaeological material resulting from the excavations in Assyria and Babylonia. The author has done his work conscientiously, covering the life, the art, the industries, and the sciences, in fact, the whole field of the archaeology of the Assyrians and Babylonians, with something beyond. It is abundantly illustrated and well published. We commend the book most heartily, as in general trustworthy, one which makes use soberly of the latest results of the excavations and of the latest interpretation of those results.

*My Life at Sea.* By Commander W. Calus Crutchley. New York: Brentano's. \$2.75 net.

Under this title Commander Crutchley has written what he modestly calls "a yarn loosely spun for the purpose of holding together certain reminiscences of the transition period from sail to steam in the British mercantile marine (1863-1894)." The result is an absorbing narrative, told in a strong, nervous style, of the writer's experiences on many vessels and in many waters during thirty years of active seafaring. Shipping as an apprentice of fourteen years, on the sailing barque *Alwynton*, of 491 tons register, the author went from step to step in rank, passed with a pang of regret from the old sailing ship to the bridge of the steamer that was fast superseding her, and finally retired an officer of the Royal Naval Reserve, a younger brother of Trinity House, and secretary of the Navy League.

The earlier chapters will perhaps appeal most to the ordinary reader for the pictures of life they give under conditions now almost obsolete. There is, for instance, an edifying account in chapter iv of difficulties with a rough and refractory crew, and the approved methods of discipline in vogue in those days may be gathered from the following excerpt:

To make a long story short, there was only one more case of trouble during the voyage. I found it necessary on one occasion to stretch a man out, and the old man, who was looking on barefooted and dressed in his usual rig of shirt and trousers, kept up by one brace, quietly knocked a broom off the handle, and giving me the stick, observed, "Now, haste him until there isn't a whole 'bane' in his body."

But the whole book is eminently worth reading, and those who will may draw from it not a few morals applicable to modern instances. On ships that the author commanded, boat-drill, with-

out advance warning to the crew, was a feature of the discipline, and "when boats were manned," we read, "they were always provisioned, for stores were kept in a portable state in order to facilitate this matter." His experience was that "boats could be provisioned and swung out ready for lowering in four minutes." Another interesting point is the author's belief in what he calls the "instinct" of a navigator, which he illustrates by an experience of his own, when, having stopped his ship altogether in dense fog, for no definite reason that he could assign, "when daylight came and the fog blew away we saw around us at various distances a dozen or fifteen big icebergs."

One of the *ancien régime*, the author, we are glad to note, puts in a plea for the good old title of "master," now rapidly falling into desuetude. "It is," he says, "a very fine designation and title, but to my mind carries with it the obligation to maintain its meaning. I was never particularly anxious to take the courtesy title of captain, which is commonly assumed on shore by those in charge of merchantmen. Mr. —, master S. S. —, looks quite well enough on a visiting card." Besides a forceful, vigorous style, Commander Crutchley has the knack of turning a happy phrase. One such we cannot forbear to quote before leaving this most fascinating volume. It concerns the author's last command, the *Kalkoura*, a fine vessel, which used canvas as auxiliary to her engines, and it seems to epitomize the transition period of which he writes, and the fond regret of an old-time seaman for the passing of sails: "The *Kalkoura* was as grateful for canvas as a thirsty man for drink, and revelled in the real sea dance." Not Kipling himself could improve on that.

## Notes

The autumn publications of the Yale University Press include the following: "A Journey to Ohio in 1810, As recorded in the Journal of Margaret Van Horn Dwight," edited by Max Farrand; "Colbert's West India Policy," by Stewart L. Mims; "Greek Refinements," by William Henry Goodyear; "The Yale Book of American Verse," edited by Thomas R. Lounsbury; "English Lyrical Poetry from its Origins to the Present Time," by Edward Bliss Reed; "Concordanza delle Rime di Francesco Petrarca," compiled by Kenneth McKenzie; "The Sensuous in Hebbel's Lyric Poetry," by Albert E. Gubelmann; "Yale University Library Catalogue of Early Printed Books Given to Y. U. Library in 1894 by William Loring Andrews"; "Index Verborum Catullianus," by Monroe Nichols Wetmore; "Stellar Motions with special reference to Motions Determined by Means of the Spectrograph," by William Wallace Campbell; "Some Problems of Genetics," by William Bateson; "The Relations of Education to Citizenship,"

by Hon. Simeon E. Baldwin; "The Meaning of God in Human Experience, a Philosophic Study of Religion," by William Ernest Hocking; "The Christian View of the World," by the late George J. Blewett, and "The Corporation Act of Connecticut," revised and annotated by Eliot Watrous.

The following books are to be published by Houghton Mifflin Co., September 21: "Less than Dust," by M. A. Hamilton; "Concerning Sally," by W. J. Hopkins; "The Seashore Book," by E. Boyd Smith; "Pilgrim Life in the Middle Ages," by S. Heath; "Lafcadio Hearn," by Edward Thomas; "The Task of Social Hygiene," by Havelock Ellis; "The Camp at Sea-Duck Cove," by E. H. Clark; "The Child's Day," by Woods Hutchinson; "The Teaching of English," by E. T. Campagnac.

"Teaching in School and College," a new book by Prof. W. L. Phelps, which Macmillans are publishing, is described as a practical and definite work with no scientific terminology. The same house issues this week the first three of their autumn novels, viz.: Albert Edward's "A Man's World," E. V. Lucas's "London Lavender," and an anonymous story entitled "My Love and I."

Volume I of the new edition of Garneau's History of Canada, revised and annotated by his grandson, Hector Garneau, is soon to be published in Paris by Félix Alcan.

The Century Co. announces September 24 as the day when they will issue Jack London's "Smoke Bellew," and Jean Webster's "Daddy-Long-Legs."

The publication of Roy Rolfe Gilson's "Legend of Saint Jerry" has been postponed by Doubleday, Page & Co. until next spring.

Harper & Brothers state that George Ade, who has returned to this country from Europe, has material for a new volume of Fables.

The University of Chicago Press announces the following titles as the most important on its autumn list: "The Courts, the Constitution, and Parties," by A. C. McLaughlin; "Questions on Shakespeare," by A. H. Tolman; "The Minister and the Boy," by Allan Hoban; "The Ethics of the Old Testament," by H. G. Mitchell; "American Poems," selected and edited by W. C. Bronson; "Old Testament Story: Teacher's Manual and Pupil's Notebook," by C. H. Corbett.

A new association has been formed in Chicago under the name of the Brothers of the Book, for the purpose of bringing out privately an occasional "worthy book." Their first publication is "The Links of Ancient Rome," by Payson Sibley Wild and Bert Leston Taylor.

Wilfrid M. Short, Mr. Balfour's private secretary, has made a collection of non-political addresses and writings from 1879 to 1912, which Longmans will publish under the title of "Arthur James Balfour as Philosopher and Thinker."

From Longmans is also to come "Cardinal Manning, and Other Essays," by J. E. C. Bodley.

John Murray is publishing a translation of Achille Luchaire's "Social France in the Time of Philip Augustus."



George Macaulay Trevelyan's "Poetry and Philosophy of George Meredith" was first published in 1906, and did more than any other one book to give Meredith an outstanding place among the poets of the day. This volume is now issued by Scribners in a pocket edition.

An interesting "Book of English Essays" has been selected by Stanley V. Mackower and Basel H. Blackwell, and issued by Frowde in the World's Classics. The first author is Bacon; the last is Mary Coleridge, whom the reader will be a little surprised, but not displeased, to see included in this august assembly. Jefferies and Francis Thompson might have been omitted.

Baedeker's "Southern Italy and Sicily" (imported by Scribner) has reached a sixteenth edition. For its present form it has been fully revised, particularly that part of it which deals with Naples.

Prof. J. W. Mackall's "Life of William Morris," first published by Longmans in 1899, is now brought out by them in two volumes of their Pocket Library. It is unnecessary to say that this is the standard and authoritative, though somewhat disappointing, biography of the poet-artist.

"A Descriptive Catalogue of Manuscripts in the Libraries of the University of Chicago" will be a welcome bibliographical aid to scholars in various fields. The book is compiled by Edgar J. Goodspeed, with the assistance of Martin Sprengling, and is issued by the University Press.

The most recent volumes in the Oxford Library of Translations are the "Public Orations of Demosthenes" (Frowde), by A. W. Pickard-Cambridge. Only the undisputed speeches, thirteen in number, are included. A copious introduction defends the life and actions of Demosthenes from his critics, short special introductions explain the circumstances under which the several speeches were delivered, and difficult questions are discussed in the notes which make up nearly half of the second volume. The translation is very close and accurate, but in excellent English style. The translator has endeavored to render the speeches into "such English as a political orator of the present day might use," although he admits "the necessity of retaining some of the modes of expression which are peculiar to Greek oratory." In this aim he is not successful, for the work is evidently a translation, not so much from the presence of the "modes of expression" referred to, as because of the fundamental difference between Greek and English sentence-structure.

"Sleep-Sniggle," a new double section of the Oxford English Dictionary (Frowde) by W. A. Craigie, owes little to the grandeur of Greece or the splendor of Rome. A large proportion of the words are of native origin, a considerable number are derived from the closely related Flemish, Dutch, and Low German languages, and several words of small reputation but of wide currency have come in recently from vulgar and obscure sources. The first recorded use of "slob" is in Young's "Tour," 1780, where it means Irish mud on the seashore; in 1815 the term is applied to a soft worm used in angling; the third sense, "a dull, slow, or untidy person," appears first in 1861; the Dictionary takes no account of its use in this country as an almost exact equivalent for the slang "mucker"—a person not

merely dull and untidy, but rough and vicious. In 1812 "slum" went on record as a cant word for room, and in 1824 we read of "regaling . . . in the back parlor (vulgo slum) of an extremely low-bred Irish widow"; but the great wave of social reform rising in the final quarter of the nineteenth century catches up this bit of sporting slang and brings it into prominence as the designation of the places where the "other half" live. By 1870 Lowell can speak of the "slums and stews of the debauched brain"; between 1863 and 1890 the word enters freely into compounds, e. g., "slum-literature," "slum-burrows," "slum-sister." The following quotation from the *Graphic*, 1893, curiously illustrates the effect of the literary exploitation of the slums: "The appearance of respectability . . . deprives him of the glamour of slumland."

Another word of obscure lineage, probably imitative in its origin, is "slump"; as a verb meaning to fall or sink into a bog or swamp it is found in the late seventeenth century; but as a substantive it is recorded first in the sense known on the Stock Exchange, *Boston Journal*, 1888: "There was another slump in oil on the Consolidated Exchange to-day"; the recent popularity of the word seems to reflect a general interest in high finance—*Westminster Budget*, 1896, "There is clearly no 'slump' in the matrimonial market." "Smart" as an adjective has thriven in English since the time of Wulfstan, 1023, but it is not represented in the cognate languages. Its sense-development is interesting, particularly in the later stages, when it is recognized as an Americanism: first we find a "smart" whip or a blow—one that causes pain; then a "smart" sorrow or wound; then "smart" words or style or, as in Fuller, "a smart jest, which would make the place both blush and bleed where it lighted"; then a "smart" rain; a "smart" (steep) hill; then in English dialect "'a smart few' means a considerable number"; Mrs. H. B. Stowe's "Dred," 1856, yields "I sold right smart of eggs des yere summer"; "smart" in the sense of clever or capable is found early in the seventeenth century, and in the eighteenth had the sanction of the *Tatler*; in the nineteenth century it passes for an Americanism, perhaps because the quality denoted by it is fixed upon as the salient feature of the American character—"The Opossum is held in great respect by the Yankees, as a particularly 'smart' animal." In 1888 Mr. Bryce writes: "In America every smart man is expected to be able to do anything he turns his hand to." Nowadays we suspect that "smart" is rather less in demand as a term of approbation for our first citizens. American humor, recognizing that there can easily be too much of a good thing, coined the word "smarty," employed by Mark Twain in 1880, to suggest what happens when the national virtue is run into the ground.

The proverbial love of the biographer appears in Charles E. Pearce's "The Beloved Princess" (Brentano's), an account of the brief life of Princess Charlotte of Wales, the lonely daughter of the dissolute Prince George and the much-wronged Caroline of Brunswick. There is indeed much in the span of her days—the harshness of her father, the seclusion from her mother, the

turmoil of intrigue in which she was reared, the sad end of her ambition—to excite a lively sympathy. But it is hardly necessary on that account to cast upon the character and sufferings of her mother a jaundiced eye, especially as the conduct of the Prince Regent is viewed at close range without muttering. The biographer's other qualifications seem to be a long pair of shears and a large pot of paste, together with the modicum of industry requisite to bind the excerpts from some three-score of diaries and reminiscences into a connected account. By this simple means a volume of more than four hundred closely printed pages is filled with the gossip and scandal that diverted the hangers-on at court during the Regency.

Prof. P. J. Blok's "History of the Netherlands" is now completely within the reach of English readers. In its translated form (Putnam), the work occupies five volumes, for the first three of which Miss Ruth Putnam, as interpreter, is responsible, while for the last two her duties have been assumed by Oscar Bierstadt. Volume V is occupied with the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the constitutional revision of 1887 being the last incident to receive detailed attention. During the progress of publication we have not failed to notice the successive instalments as they appeared, and there remains small need for further comment. Speaking at large, we may say that Professor Blok is learned, but not sprightly. This statement is less designed to disparage than to explain, and by way of supplement it should be stated that the inherent value of his narrative will repay those who are in search of something besides light literature. The author's preface, which is dated October, 1911, opens as follows:

With this volume is completed a work which was begun by me more than twenty years back. I realize that it has not been practicable for me to maintain uniformly throughout the narrative the high standard of accomplishment in historical comprehensiveness and in literary form which in my youthful ardor it had been my hope to secure; but I may hope that my book may serve to add to the knowledge of the history of Dutch people, not only with my fellow-countrymen, but with the circles of English-speaking readers on both sides of the Atlantic, for whom this edition has been prepared.

Avoiding detail, our own last word must be that in point of scholarship Professor Blok's work is well done, while, for the rest, it is more likely to be classed among books of reference than among *belles lettres*.

In the compass of a pleasant volume of 537 pages Dr. Percy A. Hutchison has ably collected the best non-dramatic poetry of Great Britain. The general plan of the book may be indicated by noting that the period from Wordsworth to Hood is represented by about 110 pages devoted to thirteen poets, Wordsworth himself receiving twenty pages. For the most part, poems are printed without omission; in the case of Tennyson, for instance, the only poem represented by selections is "In Memoriam." It is scarcely worth remarking that one will examine the book in vain for certain favorite poems, and, on the other hand, will find in it bits of verse that seem superfluous; so much may be said of any anthology not of one's own making. Without

serious exception Dr. Hutchison has exerted great discrimination, and he has wisely rejected everything in the nature of biographical outlines and notes, save a few footnote glosses on words. The text itself shows every evidence of scholarly care. The book bears the title: "British Poems from 'Canterbury Tales' to 'Recessional'" (Scribner).

In "The Contest for California" (Houghton Mifflin) E. R. Kennedy aims "to show how Col. E. D. Baker saved the Pacific States to the Union." The work is based partly upon the sources, which are used without discrimination, and partly upon the recollections of the author. Although Mr. Kennedy has a definite thesis in hand, the narrative takes the form of rambling reminiscences rather than that of closely reasoned argument. The book is not uninteresting reading, particularly the first part which describes conditions in California at the opening of the Civil War; but the danger of secession in California and Oregon is probably exaggerated, and the proof that Col. Baker prevented it consists largely in quoting from his speeches in the campaign of 1860, which we are told had a tremendous effect. In the reading, as a matter of fact, they sound rather tawdry, but they may well have had their effect for all that. One is inclined not to trust Mr. Kennedy's judgment in the matter, however, for he is very strongly prejudiced in Col. Baker's favor. For the rest, he is a fire-eating Northerner, unaware that it is no longer good form to wave the bloody shirt; he waves it, accordingly, not perhaps as a follower of Sherman would wish it waved by the political stump-speaker, but very much as such a one would wish it waved by the historian of the great war. "In all the history of fallacies—divine right of rascally kings, supreme right of majorities to oppress minorities, right of factions to murder, as in the French Revolution—there has never one appeared more pestiferous and fatal to its dupes than the centrifugal doctrine of 'State sovereignty.' . . . This virus, this political bubonic plague," etc.

Stephen Bonsal's "Edward Fitzgerald Beale" (Putnam) is the record of an adventurous life hardly to be paralleled outside of America. A grandson of the famous Commodore Truxton of Revolutionary fame, Beale, after some years of naval service, went to California, where he distinguished himself in the early military operations of the Mexican War. In company with Kit Carson, he carried to Washington the news of the battle of San Pasqual. Returning to California across the plains, he was among the first to see the importance of the gold discoveries, and himself carried the first gold to Washington. Repeated overland journeys followed, the most famous being that of 1853, in which he penetrated Utah and traversed the Mohave desert. Subsequently he surveyed a route for a wagon road from Zuni to California, and railroad routes in New Mexico and Colorado. For a short time he was superintendent of the western Indians, in which office his policy of fair dealing incurred the enmity of the whites and the opposition of the Buchanan Administration; and he later held the office of surveyor-general of California and Nevada. During Grant's second Administration he was for a year an acceptable minister to Austria. With the exception of his

friend Kit Carson, hardly any man of importance was so closely identified with the early exploration of the West and the development of early transcontinental trade, and the record of his exciting experiences gives to Mr. Bonsal's pages many a touch of vivid personal interest.

The death is announced in Boston of Constant Désiré Despradelle. He was born in France in 1862, and was a pupil of the Beaux Arts. Since 1893 he had been professor of architectural design in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. His work as architect was done chiefly as member of the firm of Codman & Despradelle.

Col. A. Loudon Snowden, a well-known numismatist and diplomatist, has died in Philadelphia, at the age of seventy-five. He had served at one time as United States Minister to Greece, Rumania, and Servia, and also to Spain. For a number of years he was connected with the Philadelphia Mint, for which he made a number of improvements in coining machinery.

Rev. Richard Sill Holmes of New York is dead, at the age of seventy. He was the editor of the *Westminster*, and had published three novels: "The Maid of Honor," "The Victor," and "The Outcome."

William Mailly, a Socialist writer of some influence, has died in his forty-first year. He was at one time managing editor of the *New York Call* and later associate editor of the *Metropolitan Magazine*.

## Science

### POINCARÉ AND THE PHILOSOPHY OF SCIENCE.

By the death of Jules-Henri Poincaré the world has lost not only one of the really great mathematicians, but also a most interesting personality in modern scientific thought. His achievements in mathematics are too technical to be discussed here; their importance is really appreciated when we realize that he will rank as the successor of Laplace. But in the middle of his career, his interest apparently shifted to the more concrete problems of physics, and towards the end of his life he became fascinated by scientific criticism and philosophy. In spite of his greatness as a mathematician, it is this latest aspect of his work which appeals most strongly to the world at large.

His philosophical and critical attitude is interesting and, at the same time, baffling. It has been said by one of the keenest of physicists that Poincaré, like Socrates, was imbued with inquisitiveness and skepticism. It is this Socratic spirit which was, at the same time, a source of power and of weakness; for while it enabled him to appreciate the inadequacy of much of scientific theory and hypothesis, it perhaps prevented him from achieving any one great work of the imagination which stands out as peculiarly his own. At times it amounted almost to cynicism,

as is illustrated by a remark he made while presiding over a scientific meeting. A paper had been read describing some complicated phenomena, and for a wonder no one had offered an electrical explanation of them. He remarked that it was very unusual for such an oversight to occur; but, no matter, by tomorrow probably forty different hypotheses would be advanced, all equally good. The man who estimates human ingenuity with such detachment is evidently lacking in that naïve power of seeing only one side of a question which is commonly characteristic of the creator of a philosophical system.

By temperament and by training, Poincaré belongs to the classic French school of mathematical physics. In mathematics and physics the French have always insisted on rigorous accuracy, combined with lucidity and finish. As a result their textbooks and treatises are models of clear and logical development. On the other hand, they are likely to give the erroneous impression that the subject has been fully developed and contains few inconsistencies. In the treatises of the great French physicists, such as Poisson, Ampère, or Poincaré, the hypothetical is reduced to a minimum. Starting with a few general principles, they derive laws and conclusions by rigorous mathematics, and such experimental facts as are given are generally those which fit into the plan of the work, while those which are obscure or irrelevant are omitted. For this reason, French physicists may fail in those intuitive flashes of genius shown by a Faraday, but they rarely obscure their meaning by attempting to explore side issues at the expense of the main thought, as Maxwell and Lord Kelvin so frequently did. The training and integrity of the French make it difficult for them to appreciate the more illogical methods of scientific development in favor in England and Germany.

This difference in method was especially true of the school of physics developed by the Victorian physicists. Led by Faraday, this band of great men sought to unify all the branches of physics, to wrest from nature her secrets by experiment, and to visualize the processes of nature by constructing mechanical models of atoms and ethers.

Faraday was undoubtedly the greatest master of experiment that has ever lived, and probably we shall never have again from a single mind such a series of profound discoveries as are contained in his electrical researches. But, having had no training as a mathematician, and having begun his career as a chemist, he was content, when it came to explaining his ideas of electricity, to image all space as filled with lines of force of the most materialistic sort, and he cared very little whether or not these lines were consistent with



ordinary mechanical laws or mathematical analysis. Maxwell undertook the task of explaining Faraday's ideas on electricity and the ether in a more orthodox way, and of reducing his lines of force and ethereal stresses to a mechanical and mathematical form. In his "Treatise on Electricity" Maxwell produced a work of genius. He showed that the new idea of Faraday (that electrical energy was a stress in the space surrounding a charged body rather than an influence residing on its surface) led to the same conclusions as the postulate of action at a distance adopted by Poisson and Ampère. He developed the mathematical laws of lines of force; initiated the electro-magnetic theory of light; predicted the propagation of electro-magnetic energy through space, which has resulted in wireless telegraphy; and pointed out the importance of studying the passage of electricity through rarefied gases. But Maxwell unfortunately wrote with so little regard to form that it took much time and many commentators to unravel the perplexities of his book before his ideas became appreciated by Continental physicists.

The third of the great Victorian masters, Lord Kelvin, possessed the rare combination of great experimental insight with profound mathematical ability. He, too, was seldom content to rely on abstract formulæ, but usually illustrated them with a concrete model. Thus his study of Fourier's mathematical series resulted in a machine for measuring ocean tides, and he invented endless models of atoms and ethers to explain his theoretical work on the transmission of light. These three men impressed their methods so firmly on their followers that their influence still dominates the group of English physicists who are making the Cavendish Laboratory illustrious.

Poincaré, recognizing the importance of these new ideas, set himself the task of making his countrymen familiar with them. How deep the antipathy was in France is shown by a passage in his introduction to "Electricité et Optique": "The first time a French student opens Maxwell's book, a sense of uneasiness, and often of repugnance, is mingled with his admiration. And it is only after a prolonged effort that this feeling disappears. Some eminent minds preserve it always." One feels that this was Poincaré's own attitude at first, but he persevered until he became almost sympathetic with Maxwell's point of view. Some years later he wrote: "The English teach mechanics as an experimental science; on the Continent it is taught always more or less as a deductive and *a priori* science. The English are right, no doubt." He recognizes also the straightforward, almost naïve, character of the English mind in the way they

build models of atoms out of sticks and strings; in their unquestioning acceptance of the anthropomorphic definitions of matter and force; and in their content with the most materialistic scientific hypotheses. Yet in spite of all this complacent self-content, or perhaps because of it, he sees that they progress steadily and achieve great results. But while Poincaré felt this, and even wished the English method to be cultivated in France, in order that time might not be wasted over fruitless accuracy, his more acute and skeptical mind fretted at English materialism. He examined one by one the postulates of science and found that not one of them had any real or necessary significance. Our environment is to him a riddle without solution, and all we can do is to choose certain appearances which for the time being seem necessary, or at least convenient.

He takes as his starting-point the belief that a mechanical explanation of all phenomena is the most satisfactory to our minds; then he shows that we can always find a mechanical explanation. But, and this is the significant fact to Poincaré, instead of only one mechanical explanation of any given phenomenon being possible, there are an indefinite number of others equally possible. And, as we are totally at a loss for a criterion to determine which is the actual method of nature, we adopt the hypothesis most convenient, add to it until it becomes cumbersome, and thereupon throw it aside for another.

By the time Poincaré has finished with our most cherished scientific theories there is precious little substance left them. Thus mass, instead of being the fundamental and tangible quality by which we recognize matter, becomes only a coefficient which it is useful to introduce into our calculations. As for energy, he is content to say that whatever new notions we may have in the future about the world, at least we shall always find something constant which we may call "energy."

It is pretty well known that half a century ago, men of science felt that their doctrines were destined to be the gospel of the future. Herbert Spencer may be cited as an extreme example of this belief, in his endeavor to unite into a comprehensive scientific philosophy all sorts of things quite irrelevant to science. Hypotheses were advanced which apparently combined all the forces of nature into a few simple types dominating our lives and our environment. To-day these hypotheses are either dead or moribund, and we are again groping for a clue in the midst of a great mass of new facts. We still have, to be sure, abundance of modern hypotheses, but they lack the broad sweep of those they displace; they are tentative, and generally so abstruse as to have little chance of abiding.

Poincaré seized the opportunity, when, in 1900, he delivered his address to the Congress of Physicists, to discuss the foundations of scientific knowledge and to state the new gospel of science. His address was masterly, keen, and searching; but it was a gospel of doubt rather than of conviction, and it leaves us with the feeling that, while we constantly learn new facts and subdue new forces, science has no certainty as a philosophical guide. Our pretty theories are destined to early oblivion, and it is better to indulge in them as little as may be. We make hypotheses and shall continue to make them, merely because we are prone to speculate.

All generalizations, according to Poincaré, are hypotheses. We have no criterion of truth to distinguish among them, or, to use Bacon's term, we can find no *experimentum crucis*. Hypotheses he divides into three classes according to their probability or reliability. First, there are those hypotheses which are natural and necessary, such as the conviction that a straight line is the shortest distance between two points, or that the influence of very distant bodies is quite negligible. Secondly, there are indifferent hypotheses, such as the assumption of the real existence of atoms and an ether, or the characteristics assigned to light vibrations. These he calls indifferent because he thinks they are neither beneficial nor harmful to science. Since they cannot be verified by experiment, they are a sort of metaphorical language intended to give a picture rather of what might be than of what is. And thirdly, there are hypotheses which are real generalizations or laws. Examples of this class are Newton's law of gravitation and the law of the conservation of energy. These are subject to verification by observation, and though they may be only approximations, yet they have been tested in so many different ways as to carry general conviction of their truth.

This classification is unfortunate, for it tends to put all knowledge on about the same level of futility. His three classes of hypotheses differ not only in degree of probability but also in kind, and it would be better to give different names to the three classes than to qualify the same name. The first class is composed of our axioms; it includes those immediate generalizations which are so self-evident that we cannot conceive them to be false. The third class comprises those generalizations which have been tested and found to be true within the limits of our powers of observation. We should call them laws. They are so few in number and so simple in expression as not to confuse the mind. The second class really includes all *hypotheses*, strictly speaking. These may perhaps be indifferent, so long as we keep clearly in mind that they are merely fictions of the imagination. But

it is a little difficult to see why science should labor over indifferent things, and Poincaré himself brings this doubt out clearly when he writes that the existence of matter and of the ether are both hypotheses, only that of matter is necessary and will always be held, whereas that of the ether is indifferent and we shall some day abandon it as useless. The misfortune of these hypotheses is that they are useless, very numerous, very complex, and likely to impose finally on the mind the conviction that they are the realities rather than fictions. Naturally we are not condemning the use of the mathematical hypothesis of the average effect of small actions nor of the assumption of the existence of small parts of bodies, but we are convinced of the futility and harm in inventing mechanisms to portray the actions of these separately negligible parts. Either physicists lack the power of clear expression or else many of them see no essential difference in our ideas of matter and the ether. Indeed, modern physicists are writing treatises with the avowed purpose of proving that the ether is the reality and matter only its fictitious image.

However we may regard the effect of hypotheses on the trained men of science, there is little doubt that they do harm when they are taught to students who are learning a science. In most of our textbooks and treatises on theoretical physics as much (if not more) emphasis is placed on hypotheses as on laws and phenomena. Either the idea is given that the reality of the ether and of atoms is of the same kind as that of tangible bodies, or else the mind of the student is confused by abstruse explanations which he cannot understand. The educational purpose of a scientific training for the ordinary person is to inculcate accurate reasoning, and this confusion of fact and fiction, when both are taught as if they were subject to the same objective verification, instead of increasing such accuracy, really induces looseness of thought.

The attitude of Poincaré towards the modern theories of physics which attempt to reduce all forces to electrical action and to replace material atoms by systems of electrified particles, called electrons, is rather quizzical. Thus he says: "Scarcely fifteen years ago there was nothing more ridiculous, more naively old-fashioned, than the electric fluids of Coulomb. And now, verily, they have come to life again under the name of electrons. For in what way do these molecules, permanently electrified, differ from the electrified molecules of Coulomb?" Of all the modern theories he believes that of Lorentz to be the most satisfactory. By assuming that electrical forces are due to the force reactions of electrons, and that light is the result of the orbital motions of the same electrons, Lorentz has been able

to include in a single whole all the optics and electrodynamics of moving bodies. Though his hypotheses are general and indifferent in themselves, the excellence of his theory lies in the fact that he refrains from attempting any description of the nature of electrons. Other theorists have perhaps arrived at the same conclusions as Lorentz, but they have attempted in addition to conceive a real electron and a real ether and have as usual failed. But Poincaré is convinced that even Lorentz's theory contains an insurmountable error, for his conclusions are opposed to Newton's law that action and reaction between bodies are equal and opposite. If that law is true, we must be able to find reactions between matter and some kind of an ether. This is just what Larmor attempted to do when he proposed the hypothesis that the electron, and therefore matter, was merely a kind of strain existing in the ether, and also Einstein when he makes of empty space a sort of infinite and universal reservoir of energy, useful in supplementing any shortcomings in the electron. Now Poincaré holds that all such attempts which drag in an ether must fail of experimental verification and be classed amongst indifferent hypotheses, since they neither advance nor retard science.

But perhaps too much attention has been given to the skeptical side of Poincaré. He maintained throughout his life the high purpose of advancing knowledge, and his profound work in mathematics, astronomy, and physics is a great heritage to the world. This sketch may fitly be concluded with his own hopeful words:

Taking all things into account, we are advancing towards unity of knowledge; we may not have progressed so rapidly as was hoped fifty years ago, nor have we always kept to the correct path; but, in the end, we have gained much ground.

LOUIS T. MORE.

The "Handbook of Health" (Houghton Mifflin), by Woods Hutchinson, is a pleasing little book devoted in the main to personal hygiene, but with some reference to the problems of public health. The comparison of the human body to an automobile is one of the convenient exaggerations to be expected of an author who often seems almost to write around available illustrations. Some of the illustrations in this instance are not very pertinent to the subject, but in general the peculiarities of this facile writer are less in evidence in this book than in most of his writings. Dr. Hutchinson favors apouting fountains for public drinking places, and considers the chained cup dangerous. This is in accord with the prevailing sentiment concerning the individual drinking cup, a sentiment that quite overlooks or disregards the possible harm of discouraging the abundant drinking of water by making it difficult or expensive. It might be well to suggest that if both lips are kept inside the cup while drinking the danger of infection will be much reduced. We must

protest that the peritoneum is not a cavity (p. 20), although a recent much-lauded medical dictionary does carelessly define it as a sac. The statement that the curd of milk is in large part made up of animal starch is unintelligible, unless the writer has misinterpreted the occurrence of glycocoll in the casein and supposed this substance to be the same thing as glycogen.

A convenient little hand-book, "Navigation for the Amateur," has been written by Capt. E. T. Morton (Outing Pub. Co.). It is designed to aid yachtsmen who wish to cruise and naturally does not attempt to discuss the science of navigation. Any one who has some knowledge of trigonometry and who follows the author's directions should be able to find his boat's position and lay a course.

James Weir's essay on "The Energy System of Matter" (Longmans) starts out with the good scientific belief that the triumphs of science have been in the realm of experiment and fact and not in speculation and faith, but in execution departs lamentably from that principle. The book is an attempt to outline, in simple fashion, a broad and general conception of the operation and interaction of matter and energy in natural phenomena. The reviewer has some claim to a knowledge of the subject treated, but he is compelled to admit that he cannot follow Mr. Weir. Perhaps it is advisable to do away with ethers and other media as they are matters of speculation; but if the author believes space to be a vacuum, he should not try to explain the transmission of energy. Not much is gained by stating that the attractive influence of gravitation appears as an inceptive agency in terrestrial as well as celestial phenomena. Until it can be made clear what his inceptive and other occult agencies are, it is useless to try to understand the author's cosmic system.

"Heredity and Eugenics" (University of Chicago Press) may be heartily recommended to readers seeking, as beginners, to get in touch with the discussion of these subjects. The book contains nine chapters apparently representing this number of lectures given at the University of Chicago in the summer of 1911 by Castle, Coulter, C. B. Davenport, East, and Tower. The purpose of these lectures, as the secondary title explains, was to summarize "recent advances of knowledge in variation, heredity, and evolution, and its relation to plant, animal, and human improvement and welfare." The presentation of these questions was intended for a university audience rather than for the biologically trained, and in book form should be welcome and very helpful to the general reader. There is little that is strictly new; in fact, Castle and Davenport have drawn freely from their published books, and, as the lecturers were quite independent, there is naturally some overlapping of topics and some repetition, but not to such an extent as to cause confusion. In most of the lectures there is an admirable reserve, not to say skepticism, in the treatment of large questions which the public is often misled to regard as already and finally settled. The part of the book which treats of eugenics in the limited sense of the word, only about an eighth of the whole text, is the least satisfactory in this respect and otherwise, al-



though the ardent eugenist is the very one who most needs to be taught skepticism and to remember how slight and shaky are the foundations on which they build that seek to extend to human breeding our knowledge of animals and plants. There is a fairly good index, in which we miss Rignano (p. 154), but a pronouncing glossary would be for many a welcome addition to a second edition. Misprints are few and not very misleading, but the "protein forms" of feeble-mindedness (p. 308) is a gem of the first water.

In "Forestry in New England" (John Wiley & Sons), R. C. Hawley and A. F. Hawes have produced a timely and useful book. When one considers that professional forestry in the United States is scarcely more than ten years old, the amount of technical information and facts of practice which these authors have been able to bring together is surprising. The book combines to an uncommon degree the functions of a handbook for the use of forest owners and a textbook adapted to the use of students. It is divided into two parts, the first of which deals with general forestry, the principles which underlie the growth and distribution of forests and their reproduction, improvement, protection, and measurement; and the second with the existing forests of New England—taken up by natural regions—their condition, peculiar problems, and most practicable management. In the development of these topics, the authors have sifted and put into convenient form most of the State, Government, and periodical literature that has been published. By this service alone they will have earned the gratitude of all inquiring laymen, especially such as have found the "scientific pamphlet" too often unenlightening or "out of print." To the forester, however, even more than the forest owner, the book will be most significant in its practical application of the technical knowledge at present available to the management of definite types of forest in specified regions. Hitherto, much of the material published on American forestry has been, of necessity, either general in character or in the nature more of scientific information than of the methods and practice to be based upon it. In the investigation and proper handling of our forests much the greater part remains to be done, and from now on the need will be more and more for expert solution of concrete problems in management. In the systematic presentation of real progress in this direction, "Forestry in New England" is a welcome pioneer.

The first volume of "Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases" (Carnegie Institution), by Erwin F. Smith, gave exact directions, with full illustrations, regarding the methods of investigating the author's subject. The same attention to minutiae is apparent in the second volume, which has just appeared, and the difficulties which confront an observer in this field are as boldly met. There are few branches of scientific activity in which changes in method and in interpretation have taken place more rapidly than in that of bacteriology. It must have been extremely difficult to cut one's way through the tangles as well as Professor Smith has done. A moment's reflection will show that the task of coordination in bacteriology is

discouraging. In the first place, no two observers can have at their command exactly the same living specimens of the organisms under investigation, and hence slight differences in appearance must naturally give rise to different conclusions. It is almost hopeless to try to straighten out the terminology and nomenclature in the midst of such confusion. But Professor Smith has made the attempt with measurably good results. He has given to students a textbook of the highest order which will also be of immense use in further study. In reading the pages given to the ways in which bacteria are introduced, one might readily conclude that no plant could possibly escape infection. The water-proof film covering the greater part of all young parts offers a strong defence, but has countless vulnerable points. And even in the firmer, cork-like protection of older organs, there may be places for invasion. The controversy which has arisen over the method of invasion is much simplified by the author's investigation.

One of the most interesting parts of the volume is that which is devoted to the bacteria-producing nodules upon the roots of many of the pulse plants. It is bewildering to think that this subject has grown to such enormous dimensions both in its literature and in its practical applications that it forms to-day a department of study by itself. For these nodules are the seat of an activity which is distinctly beneficial to the plant, enabling the organism to appropriate the free nitrogen of the soil, and they serve to bind together the topic of plant disease and the large question of soil-inoculation. The author's excellent review of the matter is based upon an examination of more than two hundred and fifty works cited in the bibliography, though the subject is exceedingly recent in all of its aspects. The exhaustive study of the "wilt" of the gourd-like plants, covering about ninety pages, has also been well chosen as an example of wide bearings. The illustrations, which have been carefully selected and well executed, have the distinction of not requiring much explanation by text. Owing to these features and to its capital index, the book will prove a comfortable one to work with in the laboratory, and attractive for the general reader who desires to know something about the rapid development in a comparatively new and important field.

Dr. W. J. McGee, the eminent anthropologist, geologist, and hydrologist, died recently in Washington, at the age of fifty-nine. He was the author of many scientific articles, and edited the anthropological department of the International Encyclopedia. The titles of his books are as follows: "Pleistocene History of Northeastern Iowa," "Geology of Chesapeake Bay," "The Lafayette Formation," "The Potable Waters of Eastern U. S.," "The Siouan Indians," "Primitive Trephining in Peru," "The Seri Indians," "Primitive Numbers," and "Outlines of Hydrology."

From London comes the report of the death of Clinton Thomas Dent, at the age of sixty-one. He was vice-president of the College of Surgeons, senior surgeon of St. George's Hospital, and chief surgeon of the Metropolitan police force. He published, besides numerous Alpine and medical writings, two books: "Above the Snow Line"

and, in the Badminton Library, "Mountain-eering."

Dr. Andrew Wilson, English journalist and lecturer on physiological and health topics, is dead in his sixtieth year. His publications include: "Studies in Life and Sense," "Leisure Time Studies," "Science Stories," "A Manual of Health Science," "Chapters on Evolution," "Leaves from a Naturalist's Note-Book," "Common Accidents and How to Treat Them," "Wild Animals," "Elements of Zoology," "Student's Guide to Zoology," "Brain and Nerve," and "The Modern Physician."

## Drama and Music

*Festivals and Plays.* By Percival Chubb and Associates. New York: Harper & Bros. \$2 net.

*Folk Festivals.* By Mary Master Needham. New York: B. W. Huebsch. \$1.25 net.

*Pageants and Pageantry.* By Esther Willard Bates, with an Introduction by William Orr. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.25.

*The Festival Book.* By Jennette E. C. Lincoln. New York: The A. S. Barnes Co. \$1.50 net.

The lately developed penchant for revivals, a tendency characteristic of an age of sophistication, has called forth a whole literature devoted to the topic, of which the four books mentioned above are, each in its way, excellent examples. England started the craze for pageants, and this country has, with customary enthusiasm, gone England one better, till no city of the Middle West, boasting a record of a half-century of busy progress, can feel quite satisfied with its civic enterprise if it has not asserted itself visibly through the medium of an historical pageant.

Along with this desire to celebrate civic and national progress through the spectacular of the pageant, has come a general harking back to the forms and symbolisms, the celebrations and festivals, that were part of the daily life of an earlier, less sophisticated people. In particular, efforts have been made, as by the writers of these books, to include the presentation of such old-time festivals in the normal curriculum of schools. In "Festivals and Plays" the case has been argued with conspicuous ability by Percival Chubb and his associates in the Ethical Culture School of New York. Mrs. Mary Master Needham advances a similar plea, less academically put, in her interesting and instructive little book, "Folk Festivals"; "Pageants and Pageantry" and "The Festival Book" (the former with a helpful introduction and a chapter on Making a Pageant) are practical expositions, giving specimen pageants and folk festivals, of the same argument.

In all of these books is noticeable

an earnestness of purpose and a whole-souled enthusiasm for the subject which commands respect; and it is in no spirit of carping criticism that we inquire whether the enthusiasm may not be misdirected. Is it possible to revive in this age the spirit, for instance, of the old May-day festival? And if the spirit cannot be revived, is it desirable to revive the form? The first of these questions seems to be answered by the mere fact that the themes and conduct of the festivals have to be taught. It seems to us that the very essence of May-day, Christmas, Twelfth Night, and kindred celebrations is their spontaneity. They were evolved naturally, without effort, out of the traditions of a simple folk, who celebrated them because they really wanted to do so. They were the spontaneous expression of what people felt, and when people ceased to feel that way, as they began to do in England early in the last century, they very sensibly ceased to celebrate them. Now, in an age in which the conditions of living are as far removed as the poles from the traditions of May-day, an age which, for good or evil, is extraordinarily complex in its emotions, we are bringing out the May-pole from the lumber-room of memory, and teaching people the forgotten steps of the morris dance.

Our doubts as to the utility of this procedure are on the grounds that tradition is a growth which cannot be artificially fostered, and we suspect that the new-born enthusiasm for "revivals" in this country is in part attributable to our unique position among the nations of the world. With full knowledge of the traditions of other peoples, and justly claiming as part of our own heritage a share in those of the old countries from which we originally sprang, we yet have but few that can be claimed as essentially American. We are impatient to claim a birthright of tradition before the centuries have awarded us one, and we seek to stimulate what can only be a natural growth by artificial means. A man can buy a house furnished with portraits of ancestors already hanging on the walls; but he cannot make them *his* ancestors. So we may adopt the traditions and festivals of every European country that contributes to our population; but we cannot make them our own American traditions. It may be pleaded that borrowed traditions are better than no traditions at all, and Rome may be cited as an instance of a people who found no difficulty in assimilating both traditions and deities of foreign origin; but in our case we are appropriating festivals which, for the most part, the original European users have already discarded as incompatible with the complex emotions of modern life. Were there any doubt as to the artificial nature of these celebrations, it would be

dispelled by Mr. Chubb himself, who tells us that the Ethical Culture School "was induced to organize a Normal Course in Festival Methods."

Another field of speculation opened up by the theme of these books is too wide to be fully discussed there; but it is at least an open question whether these festivals and pageants, as a part of the curriculum of schools, have the educational value that is claimed for them. That joyousness can be learned by rote we do not believe. That historical pageants have a certain value in elucidating and making interesting the facts of history we are ready to grant. But as a recognized part of an educational regimen we are inclined to doubt the efficacy of pageantry. The modern tendency in education is to make all learning as unlaborious as possible to the pupil, and, while this represents a very wholesome reaction against the old-fashioned mechanical grind of Latin and Greek grammar, there is the danger lest it may be carried too far. Education is properly not so much the acquiring of information as the disciplining of the mind so that it may be ready to receive information and coördinate it into knowledge. While the rehearsal of a pageant or a festival may be a very delightful exercise for boy or girl, and may impress certain facts of history or of folk-lore upon the intelligence, it is very doubtful whether, as an instrument of education in the broader sense, it compensates for the interruption involved to more serious, if less attractive, studies.

We have elected to treat of the subject generally rather than to give an extended review of the books under notice. In justice to the several authors we must add that, given their point of view, the volumes they have produced are both interesting and helpful to an appreciation of pageantry and folk festivals.

On September 21 Houghton Mifflin Co. will bring out "J. M. Synge: and the Irish Dramatic Movement," by Francis Bickley.

The probability is that "Discovering America," a modern play in four acts, by Edward Knoblauch, produced at Daly's Theatre, is a juvenile effort. At any rate it is vastly inferior in design and execution to the pieces which have given him a prominent place among contemporary dramatists. But it is founded upon an idea which might have been put to excellent dramatic purpose. He proposed, presumably, to illustrate the superior power of the eager, competitive, materialistic life of the New World to bring out the finest qualities of manhood, as compared with the more luxurious and lethargic influences of decadent European civilization. Unfortunately the illustration which he offers in no way proves his case. His hero is a rich young American, who has passed so many years in Rome as an artistic connoisseur that he has become entirely denationalized and lost all ambition and energy. He worships a

lovely and angelic Princess—a sorely abused wife—and is about to elope with her when he is overtaken by ruin and forced to return to the America which he despises. After swearing eternal fidelity to the Princess he starts for New York, and then promptly falls in love with a pretty orphan, Ruth Dix, whose sole possession is a wonderful machine for sewing on buttons. He enters into partnership with her, makes a fortune in no time, and is about to marry her when the Princess, now a happy widow, arrives to claim his hand. Thereupon he informs the astonished Ruth that he must at once return to Italy. Again in Rome, he discovers that he cannot be married without a dispensation and, before this can be secured he bitterly reproaches the Princess, who has sacrificed everything for him, with having taken from him everything that was worth living for. For him Ruth is now the ideal woman and business achievement the one source of felicity. He rhapsodizes over the American institutions which he had formerly affected to despise. From any manly point of view his conduct is indefensible. In the end Ruth appears to claim him—much as the Princess had done before—and the latter, after threatening suicide, resigns him to enter a convent. The disingenuous behavior of the reconstructed American wholly discredits the philosophy which he enunciates, and makes him completely unsympathetic. Thus the piece defeats its own object. The representation was chiefly notable for an admirably sincere, graceful, and refined performance of the Princess by Miriam Clements.

It is only by the deftness of its construction that Sir Arthur Pinero's latest comedy, "The 'Mind the Paint' Girl" commends itself to special admiration. There can be no question of the skill with which the story is told, and the different personages are introduced and handled, but the tale itself is conventional and insignificant, while the personages are neither new nor important. As a representation of the every-day life and association of a popular female musical comedy star it is probably fairly veracious. Sir Arthur knows as much on the subject as most men, and his character studies closely resemble those of other dramatists. The two acts which he devotes to a portrayal of theatrical friendships, manners, and morals offer nothing fresh, entertaining, or inspiring. Such truths as they reflect are familiar but not funny. But in the third act, where the heroine recites her own history, in order to dampen the ardor of the silly young Viscount, who is courting her, and turns upon the affianced lover, who has compromised her by his suspicions, only to pardon him and to repledge him her troth, the complication is as dramatic as it is ingenious and effective. In this scene the playwright reveals his old power of invention and eloquence. But unfortunately, this act, which leads up to an effective crisis, is followed by a purely conventional ending, which effectually demolishes any moral which he might have been supposed to have in mind. It is plain that the piece is merely a commercial experiment with glimpses of stage life as its main attraction. In the part of Lily Parradell, the heroine, Miss Billie Burke does very well, although the emotional requirements of the third act



are beyond her powers. The general representation is smooth, but never brilliant.

A society bearing the name "The Association for the Promotion of English Singing" has been formed in London.

Eugen D'Albert's new opera, "Chains of Love," will have its first performance in Dresden.

The Portuguese composer, August Machado, has completed a new comic operetta, which is to have its first performance at the Trindad Theatre in Lisbon. Its title is "The Princess on Her Travels."

Siegfried Wagner has decided to leave to others next year the privilege of celebrating the centenary of his father's birth. He will have no Bayreuth Festival next summer, as he believes that speeches, prologues, and that sort of thing do not fit into the Bayreuth programme. Just why, it is difficult to see, since Richard Wagner included such things in his festival schemes in 1876 and 1882.

Massenet's new opera, "Don Quixote," had no fewer than sixty-eight performances at the Théâtre Lyrique, in Paris last season. At the Opéra Comique, also, he headed the list, with forty-nine performances of "Mignon," while his "Werther" was sung thirty-two times. He is the most popular French opera composer of the day. Bizet's "Carmen," as a matter of course, ran him a close race, with forty-five performances, but "Faust," at the Grand Opéra, was sung only twenty-five times. Saint-Saëns occupied a prominent place, with seventeen performances of his "Samson et Dalila," eight of "Déjanire," and ten of "The Ancestor." Wagner's "Meistersinger" was sung ten times at the Opéra, while the Comique revived "The Flying Dutchman," giving it seventeen times. Of operettas, Lohar's "Merry Widow" was in the lead, with 160 performances. A full account of the season has been printed in the "Almanach des Spectacles" of Albert Soubies.

Bruckner is evidently gaining in popularity in Germany. All of his symphonies are to be issued in full score in the miniature edition of Eulenburg, which students and concert-goers have found so useful. Other numbers to be added to this edition presently are Liszt's "Dance of Death," for orchestra and piano (Siloti's edition), and two of Dvorák's chamber works, a quartet and a quintet.

Londoners are justly proud of their "Proms," as the promenade concerts are called. These concerts, the *Telegraph* informs us, are "among the few, the very few, at which you will witness anything like real musical enthusiasm on the part of the paying public." Sir Henry Wood conducts nearly all the promenade concerts. On his programmes for the present summer and autumn season, Wagner's name appears 109 times, that of Beethoven 39, Mozart 28, Tchaikovsky 26, Saint-Saëns 18, Bach 16, Liszt 14, Brahms 14, Weber 13, Elgar, Mendelssohn, Berlioz, and Dvorák 12 each. Handel 10. British composers are not neglected; they supply above 12 per cent. of the music. And all this music, classical and popular, can be heard at about 8 cents a night for "Promenaders," 24 cents for seat-holders in the balcony, and 36 cents in the grand circle, where the seats are numbered and reserved. All season tickets, moreover, are transferable.

Helen Keller, though deaf as well as dumb and blind, has repeatedly written that she is able to enjoy music by standing close to a piano and putting one hand on it. Several psychologists have expressed the opinion that she deludes herself, and that she cannot possibly be impressed by music in a definite manner. Prof. W. Stern, of the University of Breslau, made up his mind to study the problem personally, so he paid Miss Keller a visit, the result of which he relates in the current *Zeitschrift für angewandte Psychologie*. He sat down and played the piano, while she leaned with her body against it and also placed one hand flat on the lid. First, he played a simple melody in four-four measure, the rhythm of which he specially accentuated. Miss Keller soon began with her other hand to beat time, on the whole correctly, and when the piece was ended she called it a "soldiers' march."

The professor then played Strauss's "Blue Danube" waltz, which visibly agitated her; her whole body began to vibrate and sway while her facial expression also indicated enjoyment in an unmistakable manner. This piece was pronounced a "country dance." Chopin's funeral march she called a "lullaby," which was not so inappropriate, the professor remarks, as it might seem, for, as a whole, this piece is less tragic than elegiac and sentimental. Miss Keller was also able to tell when a very high or a very low key was touched, and she recognized a trill promptly.

## Finance

### WALL STREET AND THE POLITICAL CAMPAIGN.

People who watch the Stock Exchange, to determine the drift of financial opinion on either the industrial or the political situation, are getting no great light. In news from the industrial field, we have had within a week the announcement that August's iron production has broken all records for the month; that advance orders on the Steel Trust's books are the largest since 1907; that the corn, oats, and spring wheat crops, according to the Government's monthly estimate, will surpass all previous records in their yield, and that the volume of actual merchandise traffic has already grown so great that by this time every available railway freight car in the country is in use. In politics, following the Vermont election, we have had the vote of Maine for Governor, in which the Republican plurality was the smallest cast in a Presidential year since 1880. But the Stock Exchange hardly stirred. It moved, in the day or two after the returns came in, like one who has been roused from sleep, who lifts his head and listens for an instant, and who then turns over and drops off again.

Now, to observers who count on the stock market as a commentator on the developments of the day, this is clearly

disappointing. People who scan the financial columns of their afternoon paper to see how the day's news is "reflected," and who learn that prices are just about where they were yesterday, a week ago, a month ago, are in much the same mood as people who look anxiously for the time, and discover that the clock had stopped several hours before.

When it was asked by people outside of Wall Street, after the Vermont election news had been digested, How will the stock market like the news? the market itself gave no intelligible response. The meaning of the news was plain enough. In so far as it meant anything, it meant a Democratic victory in November—on that point every experienced political expert agreed, though by no means all of them admitted that Vermont's forecast is conclusive. But the very fact of the Stock Exchange's inertia over the Vermont returns, followed by similar inertia over this week's news from Maine, brought another question forward—What result on Tuesday, November 5, would really best please Wall Street?

Now, a good deal has been said in the press and on the stump, especially during the clamorous campaign for the primary election, regarding "Wall Street's plans" and "Wall Street candidates." Any aspirant for the nomination who was even suspected of speaking civilly to Wall Street people was held up to execration. Wall Street was trying to elect its own President; very well then, voters and delegates must watch to see whom it wanted, and then must choose the other candidate.

But which Presidential candidate does Wall Street wish to see elected—the real Wall Street, not the dime-novel Wall Street of agrarian orators and political conventions? Whose election, out of the three formal nominees now in the field, would give most pleasure to this larger Wall Street? If one could answer that question accurately, he might conceivably throw some light on the state of the Stock Exchange.

There is a common impression that Wall Street is for Taft. As an alternative, it may have been so and in a measure possibly still is—though certainly not because of favors past or to come; for of all grotesque political imaginings, that is the most grotesque to any one who recalls the agonized denunciation of the President by the Stock Exchange when the Steel Trust prosecution was instituted, just ten months ago. It probably accepted Mr. Taft's renomination resignedly, on the general ground of maintenance of existing institutions; for Wall Street is not fond of sweeping innovations. Gov. Wilson's candidacy it has looked upon much as other people of a conservative turn of mind have done—admiring his career in the New Jersey Governorship, greatly disliking the Norfolk speech of a year ago,

in regard both to manner and to matter of its remarks on initiative, referendum, and recall, but finding itself decidedly reassured by the statesmanlike tone of his acceptance speech.

As for Mr. Roosevelt, Wall Street has passed through as many phases of opinion as the rest of the community has done. It was ready to march in his processions in 1904; bought stocks on his election; pooh-poohed the absurd title of the "Roosevelt panic"; put up the market a bit on the Return from Africa; began to talk of him as a "safe Wall Street candidate" when his renomination was suggested, and even lent him one of its own favorite speculative promoters to underwrite the Third Party venture. But Wall Street is, after all, very human. It is not exactly the insensate machine that La Follette and other Western philosophers imagine; and it was quite unmistakably resentment at Roosevelt's conduct towards Taft in the primary campaign, irritation at his pose as the infallible higher critic of the Constitution, the courts, and the social order, and weariness over his party's reiterated promise to "bring about a new era in our national life and insure prosperity for all," which settled the attitude of Wall Street.

So that, possibly, Wall Street is still in a more or less formative stage of opinion regarding what it would like to have happen in November. Ideas and impressions of this sort are apt to enter on new phases before election day, and both Wall Street and the stock market may possibly present a different aspect in the matter, at some time during the next eight weeks. Sometimes it seems to require one of those mysterious and inscrutable "election scares" to start the wheels of the market mov-

ing. Sometimes even a "crop scare" serves the purpose of putting an end to absolute inertia. But Nature has been in a most extraordinarily good humor with the American people in the harvest season of 1912.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Amsden, D., and Happer, J. S. *The Heritage of Hiroshige: A Glimpse at Japanese Landscape Art.* San Francisco: Paul Elder. Lane. \$1.25 net.
- Battersby, H. F. P. *The Last Resort.* Lane. \$1.25 net.
- Bindloss, Harold. *The Long Portage.* Second edition. Stokes. \$1.25 net.
- Boasworth, G. F. *East London; West London.* (Cambridge County Geographies.) Putnam. 75 cents net, each.
- Breasted, J. H. *Development of Religion and Thought in Ancient Egypt.* Scribner. \$1.50 net.
- Browning, A. *A Selection of Poems (1835-1864).* Edited by W. T. Young. Putnam. 75 cents net.
- Bryan, G. S. *Poems of Country Life: A Modern Anthology.* Sturgis & Walton.
- Buchan, John. *The Moon Endureth: Tales and Fancies.* Sturgis & Walton. \$1.25 net.
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- Butler, N. M. *The International Mind.* Scribner. 75 cents net.
- Chadwick, H. M. *The Heroic Age.* Putnam. \$4 net.
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- Davis, R. H. *The Red Cross Girl.* Scribner. \$1.25 net.
- Dinsmore, J. W. *The Training of Children: A Book for Young Teachers.* American Book Co. \$1.
- Drever, James. *Greek Education.* Putnam. 65 cents net.
- Eucken, Rudolf. *Main Currents of Modern Thought.* Translated by M. Booth. Scribner. \$4 net.
- Fleming, W. L. *General Sherman as College President.* Cleveland, O.: A. H. Clark Co. \$5 net.
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- Metlake, George. *Ketteler's Social Reform.* Philadelphia: The Dolphin Press. \$1.50.
- Mordaunt, Elenor. *The Cost of It.* Sturgis & Walton. \$1.35 net.
- Nutting, H. C. *A First Latin Reader.* American Book Co. 60 cents.
- O'Connor, R. F. *His Grey Eminence.* Philadelphia: The Dolphin Press. \$1.
- Osborne, Duffield. *Engraved Gems.* Holt. \$6 net.
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- Phillipotts, Eden. *The Lovers.* Chicago: Rand, McNally. \$1.35 net.
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